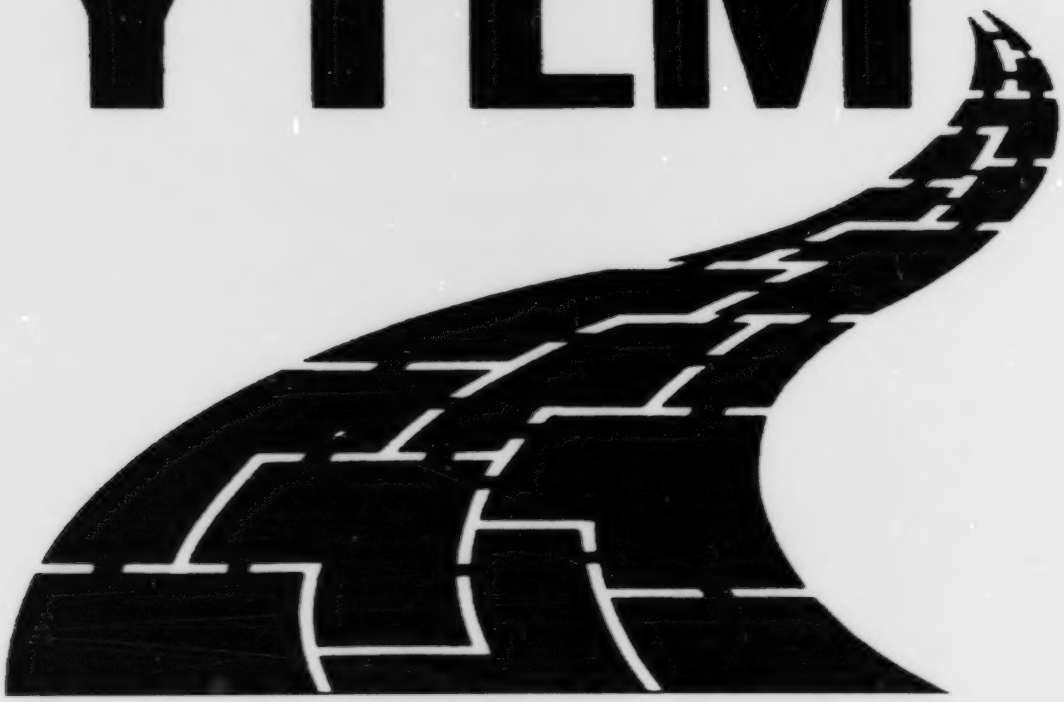
YOUTH TRANSITION INTO THE LABOUR MARKET

YTLM



THE CLASS OF '89: INITIAL SURVEY OF LEVEL III (GRADE 12) HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

--SUMMARY REPORT--

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March 1991

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--SUMMARY REPORT--

A Report Prepared by:

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Project sponsored by the
Newfoundland and Labrador Department of Education
and the Canada/Newfoundland Youth Employment Strategies Program

March 1991 .

PREFACE

The study of Youth Transition into the Labour Market began in the spring of 1987. The Newfoundland and Labrador's Department of Career Development and Advanced Studies advertised for proposals to prepare a longitudinal study design of the transition of youth. The authors, then part of the Institute of Educational Research and Development, Faculty of Education, Memorial University, made a submission and were awarded the contract. A report was made that became the basis for YTLM, the Transition of Youth into the Labour Market. Now the authors, members of the Centre for Educational Research and Development within the Faculty of Education, work on the project with the Newfoundland Department of Education. Funding is provided by the Canada/Newfoundland Youth Employment Strategies Program and the Department of Education.

The project is a developmental study of the process of youth as they make the difficult transition into the labour market of Newfoundland and Labrador. The study was undertaken with the broad purpose of developing an understanding of the aspirations and needs of youth to better devise programming to help to meet these needs.

The project consists of two parallel yet interrelated studies, one focusing on the full cohort of approximately 9000 Level III (grade 12) high school students at the end of the 1988-89 school year, and a second, which focuses on the full year cohort of 2109 students who dropped out of school between 1987 and 1988. So far, the early school leavers have been surveyed twice and the Level III group three times. There are plans to survey each group on two or three more occasions. In addition, other data have been provided by the Newfoundland Department of Education. The local school systems were used to access the Level III sample and administer the initial questionnaire.

A number of groups of youth have been targeted for special attention. They include women completing high school, but not pursuing further training; rural youth who do not enter post-secondary institutions; youth who drop out prior to, as well as after Level I; youth who fail to complete post-secondary programs; school leavers who apply for upgrading, and those that do not apply; young people who fall into a pattern of UIC and "make work" dependency; and other groups as they emerge from the data.

Throughout the project we have received the help of a large number of people, and the cooperation and assistance of many school personnel and field interviewers. In particular, we are indebted to Robert Thompson of the old Department of Career Development and Advanced Studies who originated the idea of the project, Gwen Brokenshire who organized the project data collection phase, Kelly Brocklehurst for word processing and graphics, and Sarah Barron for the overall production of this document which summarizes the initial report on Level III students.

The complete report is available and further information may be obtained by contacting the authors at: Centre for Educational Research and Development, Faculty of Education, Memorial University of Newfoundland, St. John's, Newfoundland, (709) 737-3506/7549.

INTRODUCTION

The study of the Transition of Youth into the Labour Market is a longitudinal study planned to cover a seven year period from the time that Newfoundland youth are preparing to leave public school until most are prepared for job entry or have had time to establish themselves as workers and homemakers. The primary purpose of this study is to focus on a special aspect of the transitional process: the set of accommodations that take place as youth develop to assume a position in the labour market.

This is the summary of the second report in a series to be based on the study. It focuses on the high school Level III (grade 12) student at a major transition point in their lives. Typically, these students would be in their final year of senior high school and many would be considering future work and/or post-secondary educational opportunities.

Completion of Level III represents an implicit choice point that is not formally institutionalized but does carry with it the imperative of custom. A person at this stage chooses the direction that the next stage of life will take: a failure to choose is also a choice. It is generally accepted that this is the time to take charge of one's life, and decisions about one's future are expected.

The choice process is very complex, and comprises two very different activities. The first is the development of aspiration, which involves a process of gathering and digesting information about the possible career direction to take. In the second activity, aspiration is translated into search for an entry to the next career stage. For some students the goal is acceptance into a program of post-secondary study. Others seek entry into full-time or part-time employment. There are those who enter a planned leisure period; and those, primarily women, who plan to take up life as homemakers. Possibly some combine part-time employment at the same time as they participate in post-secondary study or homemaking.

Inevitably, some Level III graduates enter a period of indecision and are unemployed or elect to continue in general studies at an institution of higher learning. Some of the students seem to develop no aspirations, and do not engage in search while in high school.

The nature, extent and timing of search at this stage is poorly defined. It is dictated, in part, by the general nature of the aspiration. Admission policies, for example, establish time lines for the search activities relating to post-secondary training and education. On the other hand, no such deadlines are implicit in the search for entry level jobs. Therefore, active search at this stage can reasonably extend well beyond the completion of Level III, and while high school is the support system usually thought of at this time, other support services could be involved.

Understanding the sources of help that Level III students use in this transition stage is important. Knowledge of the work and knowledge of educational opportunities are also part of the transition process. The status of the Level III students as they begin this crucial stage in their lives is the focus of this initial report.

SURVEY RESULTS

This initial survey of Level III students in Newfoundland and Labrador was conducted in the late spring of 1989. Questionnaires were completed by 7390 respondents, approximately 77% of all students in Level III. Most were nearing the end of their final year in senior high school and approaching a major transition point in their lives. At this stage they were expected to begin the process of establishing economic independence. In addition to becoming self-supporting, they would soon be establishing families of their own, and beginning to participate and contribute to their communities. The decisions made at this time would most likely chart the direction of their lives for years to come.

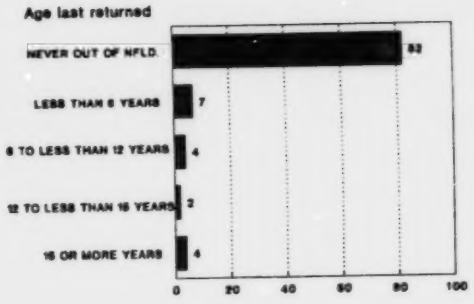


Figure 2
Age at which those students out of the province last returned
(N=7390)

DEMOGRAPHICS

The Level III students surveyed were typically 17 to 18 years old (see Fig. 1), were born in Newfoundland and Labrador, had lived in their present community for over 10 years (see Fig. 2), attended the local school system, lived with their parents, had at least one brother or sister, and were in good health. They were not a member of any Native group, and typically they did not have any kind of disability. Most spent at least 20 hours per week, after school and on weekends, on usual teenager activities such as hobbies, watching television, homework, and school or community activities (see Fig. 3).

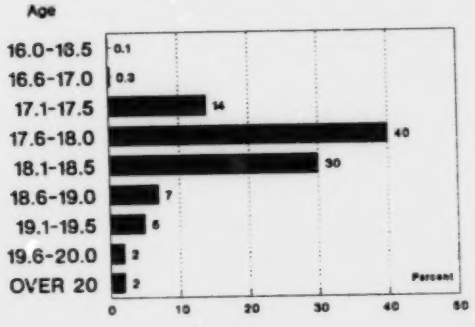


Figure 1
Age distribution
(N=7349)

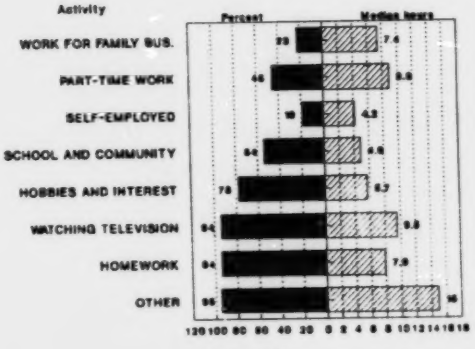


Figure 3
Extent of involvement in after school and weekend activities
(N=7390)

SCHOOL-RELATED INFORMATION

Almost all of the students expected to graduate from high school that year (1989). Most students were absent for 10 days or less in the school year, and were late for school less than six times in the year. Few of them had been suspended from school at any time. A small number had repeated grades in school, and over one-quarter of the students had contemplated dropping out at some time during school. A small number actually returned to school after dropping out. The students who had stayed in school, or returned to school, did so primarily for personal or educational reasons. If they were helped in their decision to do this, the source of the help was their parents or friends, rather than school personnel.

Even though most Level III students were planning to attend post-secondary institutions, a fair number were planning to defer or were thinking they might have to defer their enrolment (see Fig. 4). Most students said money was the reason for delaying their school plans, but it was not entirely clear whether or not financial resources were unavailable to them. Some wanted to become self-supporting and apparently felt that continuing their education would reduce their ability to do this.

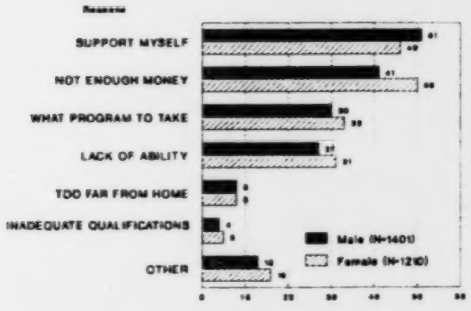


Figure 4
Reasons for not continuing education/training next year (after Level III)

Students not Completing Level III

There were a number who did not anticipate high school graduation that year (see Fig. 5). Of those, a few thought they would return to school the following year to meet graduation requirements, and some intended to work. A small number appeared to have no plans at all, suggesting that their aspirations were not well developed, or that their plans differed from expected norms which typically lead to continued education and/or work.

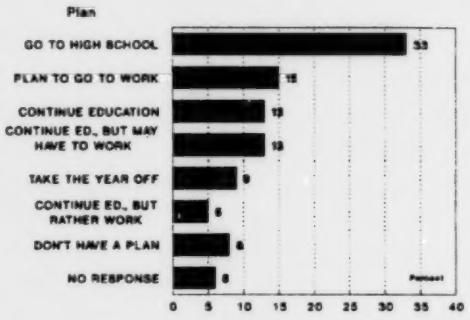

Plan
GO TO HIGH SCHOOL
PLAN TO GO TO WORK
CONTINUE EDUCATION
CONTINUE ED., BUT MAY HAVE TO WORK
TAKE THE YEAR OFF
CONTINUE ED., BUT RATHER WORK
DON'T HAVE A PLAN
NO RESPONSE
Percent
0 5 10 15 20 25 30 35 40

Figure 5
Next year plans for those students not expecting to graduate this year (N=707)

It was also clear from the data that just under 400 students planned to drop out without completing high school. This verifies the conclusion of the recent YTLM report on early leaving that substantial numbers of people complete all the requirements for graduation apart from the public examinations. These data suggest that the decision to leave school, at least for

some, is made even before taking the examinations.

VOCATIONAL ASPIRATIONS

Most of the Level III students did have a career in mind, but many of their choices were stereotypical. They did not have much interest in traditional Newfoundland resource-based occupations although there was some interest in other areas, for example, science and administration, which sometimes involve primary

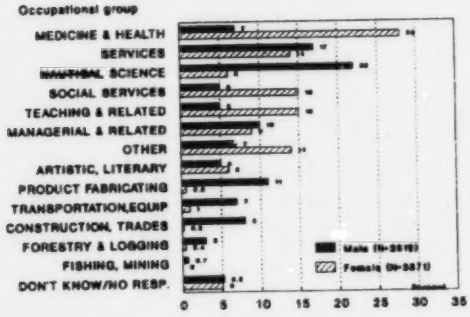


Figure 6
Future career choice

resources (see Fig. 6). One difficulty in assessing the potential of the student interest in the more traditional, resource-based occupations is the state of transition of these industries, especially the fisheries. As these industries change, new occupations will likely emerge from occupational areas not now associated with the industry. So while it is true that not many people are presently expressing a high level of interest in these areas, this could change as the industries change.

In an earlier report, it was found that the early school leavers regarded these traditional resource-based areas as potential source of employment, especially in the short term. It will be important to follow the Level III graduates to see if there is an increased reliance on these industries among those who do not pursue further training.

When asked about their career choice, most students said that it was an area that interested them. They did not specify more practical reasons such as the availability of work or training, or the time and cost of training.

To the extent that students expressed an interest in starting a business, it was in the service and retail areas. Almost no one had an aspiration to initiate a fishing venture, or a similar business in other primary resource areas (see Fig. 7).

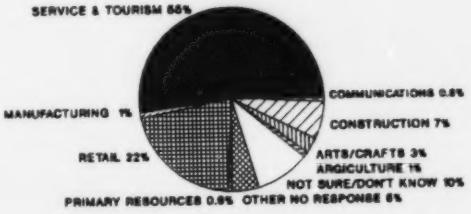


Figure 7
Business students thought of starting on their own
(N=2488)

About one-quarter of the students contemplated the possibility of working the following year. It is interesting that significantly fewer of the group definitely planning to work had made job applications than those who were considering work only as an option to education. Students who were planning to work to pay for education seemed to have a higher degree of motivation. Most of the students anticipated jobs which were low-skilled and required little or no training. This may be due partially to the type of work the students had already experienced in part-time or summer jobs. Also, few of them would yet have

experienced formal job-training programs or preparations for higher-skilled jobs.

Work Application

What students knew about applying for work was interesting. Most students thought they would apply for only one or two jobs, and would probably rely on personal contacts to get their jobs. Apart from personal contacts, use of an application was also in the top three methods given (see Fig. 8). However, few students listed more than one way to get a job. This demonstrates the restricted view they had of the job market and ways to obtain employment.

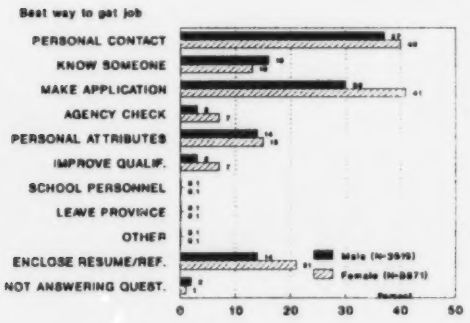


Figure 8
Best way to get job
by gender

Collectively, the students seemed to know the components of a job application . However, the number of items that each student would use individually was limited, suggesting that many would need help to write a comprehensive job application. At this stage in their careers the majority of the students would have sought only part-time or summer jobs. They would have had limited experience with formal job application procedures and would have relied primarily on personal contacts to get jobs.

Work Knowledge

Most students thought that there would be an increase in jobs in provincial industries and services such as construction, petroleum (oil), and health. This may have been related to the impending development of Hibernia (at survey time) in the case of the oil and construction industries. Yet, despite the anticipated growth in these sectors, few were planning oil-related occupations or careers. Their anticipation of more jobs in the health care field was much more difficult to understand.

Work Attitudes

Work was included in the future plans of most students. They expected and wanted to be employed to the extent that they were willing to relocate in, and out of, the province to secure a job. This indicated, at least on the surface, a vibrant work ethic and a positive attitude toward seeking employment. It is also likely that contextual factors also came into play here. The reality of the often dismal Newfoundland job market may have made students believe that a wider search for employment was necessary if they were determined to work. They might have considered that a more localized search and post-secondary education within the province would no longer guarantee a job.

Along with a favourable attitude toward employment, the students, particularly females, also expected to work in their area of occupational preparation. While they were particular about the type of work they would do, they did not want to be on welfare. A more divisive issue for all students was the possibility that they might have to choose between collecting unemployment insurance, and taking work that was not in their area of training. Generally, the students tended to choose the former.

The expectation that one should be able to work in one's area of training is inconsistent with the realities of the modern labour market, where one must be flexible enough to adapt. One aspect of the emerging labour market is that it is becoming more difficult to match training with available work, and many of the students did not seem prepared to be accommodating in this regard.

When considering different facets of work, the larger number of students evidently considered performance factors to be more important than those related to productivity and personal attributes. All three of these elements are generally acknowledged by employers to be associated with valuable attitudinal work factors; however, employers tend to give higher priority to productivity and personal attributes. Attitudes associated with these factors are also more transferable and generic to many occupations. Therefore, they are important job-holding attributes, and can help in obtaining employment.

Students also exhibited a fairly strong degree of internal locus of control with respect to finding employment. They considered, to a certain extent, that they had control and influence over their actions instead of being solely guided by external factors. However, there were concerns about such things as not having sufficient work experience to be considered for jobs because of the belief that employers sought experienced workers. Such perceptions were probably accurate.

Impact of Work Experience

Over two-thirds of the students had had work experience of some kind while in school. Very few had worked for reasons beyond making money, and generally, the higher-order motivators were absent (see Fig. 9). Students typically had enjoyed the work they did, although some had not. The reasons for the less positive reactions to work were not ascertained, but could have been caused by any number of job-related or circumstantial factors.

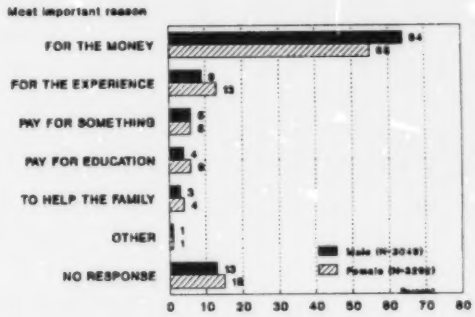


Figure 9
Reasons students gave for working

The impact of work experience is an important issue, especially as it relates to students gaining knowledge of real work situations and what it means to work for someone else. Impact is difficult to assess in precise terms due to the range and variety of work experienced. However, working would have exposed them to typical job attributes desired by employers such as dependability, punctuality and willingness to learn.

The students' early job experiences may not be related to their future occupational aspirations, but still serve as an introduction to the world of work. Their wage earning would have provided some degree of financial independence and, in some cases, a means to support post-secondary education--though this contribution seemed to be marginal.

ACADEMIC ASPIRATIONS

Plans for School

The majority of the sample said that they wanted to attend a post-secondary institution (see Fig. 10 & 11). While this was more true of females than males, there were no significant rural/urban differences at this stage of the analysis. Many anticipated a break in their education, though just over half planned to continue immediately after high school. A number of students who planned to continue in the fall had not yet decided which institutions to apply to, or the programs they planned to take

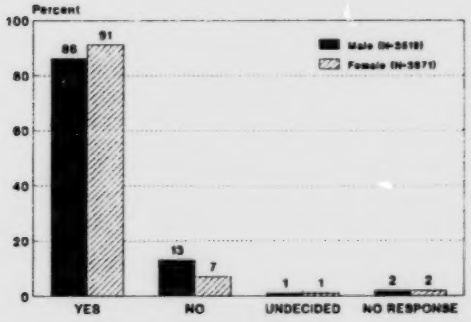


Figure 10
Plans to attend post-secondary institution by gender

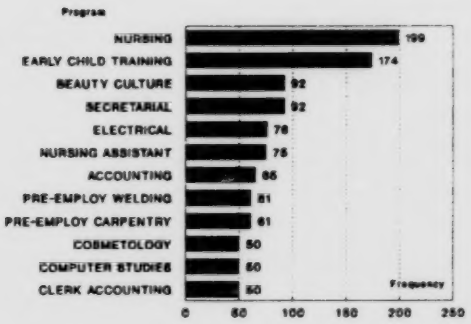


Figure 11
Most popular non-university programs considered by students planning to attend post-secondary institutions

Students said not having enough money would be the primary reason for not continuing education the following year. Distance from school was not an important consideration. Independence, and a desire to be self-supporting was an issue.

Since beginning Level III, students collectively had considered many institutions, especially Memorial University and the Cabot Institute. Many had also considered out-of-province institutions (see Fig. 12). It was evident, however, that there was low interest in attendance at the Marine Institute and the local Community Colleges.

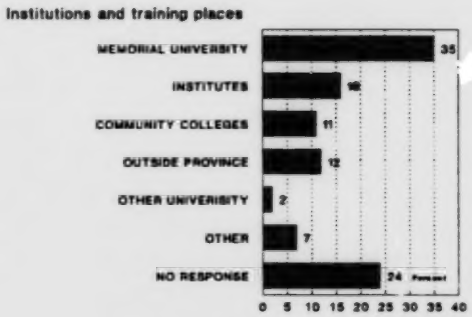


Figure 12
Institutions and training places students planned to attend (N=6546)

Knowledge of Education

The survey revealed that many students had been exposed to information about post-secondary institutions and training places through reading and, or from speakers from the various institutions. The trend was for students to focus on information gathering from only one or two institutions, rather than finding out about many. Some other possible ways of obtaining

information such as through family and friends or through school personnel were not explored in the survey. Also some institutions and training places have long-standing reputations which attract clientele to their programs.

It should be noted, however, that although students may have read, or otherwise been exposed to information about institutions, the evidence is sparse about the way the information was used. In particular, whether it was used critically to examine alternatives in selecting post-secondary programs. Many students selected traditionally restricted choices, with some limiting themselves to locally available post-secondary opportunities.

It was evident that large numbers of students were interested in university education, primarily, but not exclusively within the province. This may not be realistic in a number of cases given the necessary entrance requirements coupled with the students' over-optimism about their Level III final marks. Many students had sent applications to institutions and training places. For most, only one application was sent. Smaller and regionalized institutions tended to attract less attention. One-third of all applications were to Memorial University.

SELF-CONCEPT

It is evident that self-concept is intricately connected with many of the decisions that Level III students make, and will, for example, influence how they develop aspirations and job-search skills. Students' perceptions of their ability may determine the types of jobs they apply for, or the types of educational experiences they seek, as well as how they might perceive their futures. Successful and unsuccessful experiences can cause changes in self-concept. For example, in simplistic terms, lack of success in school could lead people to a belief that they do not have the ability to succeed academically. Overall, students' self-concept will likely affect their successful, or unsuccessful transition into the labour market.

Results of the survey indicated that, while self-concept may not have been a problem for the majority of Level III students in the Newfoundland school system (in 1989) it obviously was for a small percentage. Even though these students constitute a small group, they are worthy of special program targeting.

Vocational Self-Concept

The vocational self-concept of high-school students is a complex issue. In this study vocational self-concept was limited to gathering information on the students' perception of their ability to do jobs requiring varying levels of training and general ability.

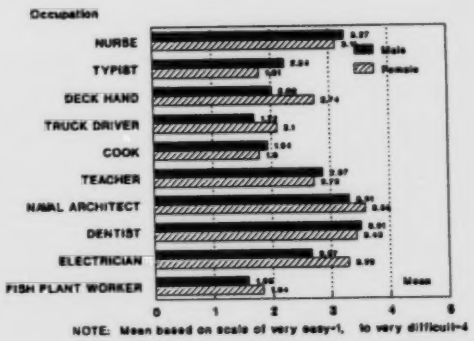


Figure 13
Student estimation of level of difficulty to learn selected occupation by gender

From a vocational perspective, the student rating of the difficulty level of common occupations in Newfoundland (see Fig. 13)

conformed generally to expectations given the general education and development (GED) and specific vocational preparation (SVP) levels of those occupations. The gender bias toward typical male/female occupations was also predictable.

Academic Self-Concept

With respect to academic self-concept, most students expected to graduate from high school, estimated their average mark to be 60% or more, and considered such marks to be fairly good (see Fig. 14). However, most students also felt that

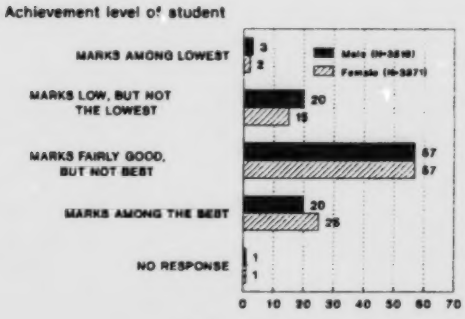


Figure 14
Students perception of their achivement level by gender

they could increase their marks by at least 5%, but more typically by 10 to 15%, if they really worked at it. This was particularly true for the male students (see Fig. 15). The belief held by many students that they could substantially improve their marks if they wanted to raises interesting questions, not only about the validity of the claims, but also about the factors which influence the motivation of these people. Because time is a major factor in achievement, the use of time by these students will be important in understanding their motivation.

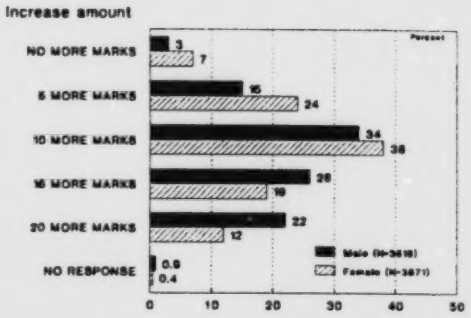


Figure 15
How much students though they would increase their marks

The majority of students were concerned about selected school subject areas such as math, science, and language arts. From the latter group, math was the main concern. This finding confirms one of the problems that has been previously identified in the educational system and which led to the recent Task Force Report on math and science.

GENDER ISSUES

The females in the sample showed the expected stereotypes concerning the question of career choice. More females than males indicated aspirations in the areas of medicine and health, social services, and teaching, while fewer expressed interest in nautical science, engineering, product fabricating, and construction (see Fig. 6, page 5). Even in the areas for which overall interest was quite low, such as primary resource industries, fewer women than men showed interest; yet, these are areas where women are now making inroads.

There were clear signs, however, that women were changing their attitudes with respect to the kinds of work that they might do. The total number listing occupations in the sales area was very low. It was no larger than the number of

men who thought they might work in the area, even though this has been one traditional area of employment for women.

Despite the low numbers, some women did express interest in male bastions of employment. This was more true in science, engineering, administration and management than in construction, transportation, and primary resources. Other recent research has indicated that women's interests in the latter occupational areas tends to develop at a later age than that of the present sample, so the lower interest of females of this age in these categories would be expected.

In general, the women perceived, probably accurately, that their academic performance in high school was better than that of their male classmates. However, they were planning to enter occupations that did not require as much education and training as those the men were planning to enter. This phenomenon is widespread and has been noted elsewhere. The survey uncovered three possible reasons for it.

Self-concept of Women and Career Aspirations

One of the most interesting observations to emerge thus far from this study is the apparent discontinuity between the academic and vocational self-concepts of the women who were surveyed. The problem can be better understood by considering several related findings. First, relatively more women than men chose careers with specific training levels of one to two years, and relatively fewer chose careers with more than two years training required, especially in the 4 to 10 year range (see Fig. 16). However, more females than males planned to attend a post-secondary institution at some time, and more were considering attending university. This

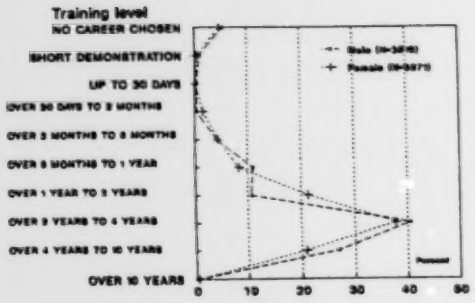


Figure 16
Training level of selected career paths

suggests a tendency for women to plan to overeducate, given their occupational aspirations. It is worth noting that the additional education, if attained, could result in changes in aspiration sometime in the future.

An explanation for these findings may lie in the tendency of the women to understate their academic capacity. In general, women saw themselves performing closer to their ability than men. They tended to report less capacity for improving their academic performance, even though they perceived themselves to be performing better than their male classmates. It is possible, therefore, that women have more doubts about their ability to compete with men academically in the future, or to sustain their level of academic attainment in more competitive environments. It was quite clear that they thought it would be more difficult for them to learn to do traditionally male work than it would be for men. It is possible, therefore, that they have greater doubts about their capacity to make the school-to-work transition.

Marriage and Educational Planning

More women than men reported plans to marry. While the gender differences in these plans cannot be regarded as indicating a likely outcome, they

do suggest a relative difference in the view of gender roles at this age (see Fig. 17). More women said that they would marry within six years. Thus, at the time of the survey, the possibility of marriage was less likely to be a factor in career decision making for the men than for the women. This made the men more free to think not only about the educational requirements of their planned occupation, but also about the

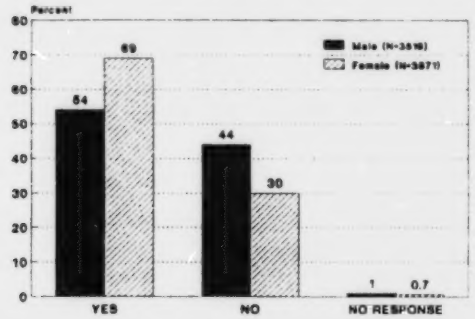


Figure 17
Plans to marry

requirements of job entry, and establishing their careers.

Even though the majority of both sexes planned marriage, virtually no one anticipated being only a homemaker. While more women than men anticipated mixing career and homemaking, half said that they would pursue a career only (see Fig. 18). The view being taken by young women

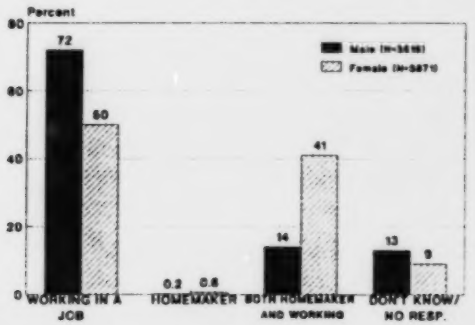


Figure 18
What students expect to be doing in 5-10 years

about their role in the home may be changing, but clearly it is still a factor for many when planning their future. More information is needed about the view of the homemaking role. Establishing programming within the schools to confront this issue will involve a number of important social issues. Schools can only assist women in confronting questions, and the success of the programming should not be judged entirely by the decisions women make.

Personal Satisfaction

There was some evidence that the perception of the relationship of work to education, and the role that education could play in life differed between the sexes. Males seemed to have a much more instrumental view of work. They tended to see the payoff of education more in terms of its ability to lead to more secure and highly paid employment than did the women; although, it would be wrong to say that this was not also a major concern of the women. Females tended to say that the social aspects of work were most important to them, while males emphasized the security aspects of work (see Fig. 19). When

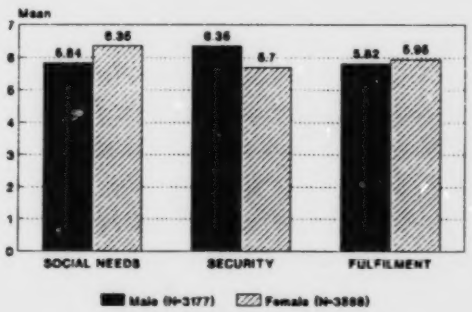


Figure 19
Job motivation scores by gender

describing their work experiences during school, males were more likely to say that they worked mainly for the money, while females were

somewhat more likely to say that they worked for the experience, or to pay for their education. Again, the differences in these values were not great.

Women were more likely than men to have reported that they enjoyed their work experience. More of them stated that having a job made them feel useful, but more women than men also felt that they were entitled to the kinds of work for which they had been prepared by their education, especially if they had worked hard during their training. Men were somewhat more inclined to view education in terms of financial payoff, while women had a tendency to identify somewhat more with the intrinsic values of education, and thus with the more intrinsic values associated with work. This is a third explanation for the inclination of women to aspire to occupations requiring less education and training than they were prepared to undertake. It may be that women are less persuaded by the conventional argument that higher levels of education can be linked to greater earning power, and more persuaded by the potential of education to provide a route to actualization.

It should be emphasized, though, that both genders have bought into the conventional wisdom that education has a financial payoff, and the bigger the educational investment, the bigger the payoff. There has been some recent evidence developed to suggest that education may not always yield this kind of payoff. It would seem that the perception of an accessible labour market will be necessary to sustain this form of motivation.

A useful strategy with young women could be to encourage further education, especially of a general nature, in order to give aspirations a chance to mature. Other recent research has shown that the nontraditional interests of girls in childhood become more traditional during adolescence, but return with more maturing. The nontraditional aspiration is sustained by the family, and especially, the father.

SCHOOL ROLE IN THE TRANSITION PROCESS

Quite often, the role of school in career decision making is raised when problems of youth transition are being discussed. Studies almost always show that students do not view the school as helpful when they are making basic decisions such as which career to pursue, or whether to continue in education. This study confirmed that basic finding. Most students reported discussing their career planning with someone, but school personnel were not mentioned often in the list of consultants.

The fact that school is not reported by the students to be as important as the parents in career decision making should not be viewed as an indictment of school. Level III students are at a point in their lives when career decisions are required, and the traditional focus of these decisions has always been the family. The important information provided by the students is that most students do involve their family and give them high priority in decision making. This is confirmed by the level of accord that the students reported their families have with their career decisions.

It is possible that the importance of peers in the process has been overemphasized in the recent literature. In this study, the students revealed that while their friends were consulted more frequently than their counsellors, teachers and principals,

their school counsellors were seen to be at least as helpful as their friends. Simple propinquity explains the higher reliance on friends. However, neither group was consulted as frequently, or were considered to be as helpful as parents.

The finding that most students said their choices were based on interest, rather than the influence of school, again does not lead to the conclusion that school failed to play a role in the decision process. It is likely that school played an indirect role in helping to develop interests of the students through instruction and other school programs. Students, themselves, indicated that they would rely on school to provide specific information about loans, scholarships and bursaries.

Unless the schools wish to take over control of career decision making, and focus the process within the system, their role must be to support the process now in place. There are some ways that schools could improve their performance in doing this. First, if they wish to affect significant change in the nature of career decision making, they need to find ways to influence the family. Second, schools need to find ways to identify more precisely the information requirements of families, and deliver this information needed when it is needed. Third, the importance of student aspirations must be recognized.

The sample contained a fairly large group of people who were undecided about their immediate plans, or who had decided not to continue immediately with their education. Some of these people perceived a need to be self-supporting, felt that they could not afford education, or reported indecision about the best program to take. Their needs are very different from the people who had made decisions about their immediate plans, but lacked specific information required to formulate action plans. The role of the school should be very different in assisting these two groups. With the first group, the family would be an important consideration in clarifying direction, while with the second, intervention could be focused much more in the school to provide the needed information.

A course such as Career Education 3101, coming as it does late in the school experience and focused within the school, will be most useful for providing specific information to students. The evidence is that this course will be about as successful as any other courses in an academic area. Success in the course will be linked to the students own motivation and ability. The course will probably not establish actual sustainable aspirations.

THE ROLE OF FAMILY

There is some indirect evidence for the hypothesis that parents will continue to support their children as they chart their own course, particularly if the course includes more education (see Fig. 20).

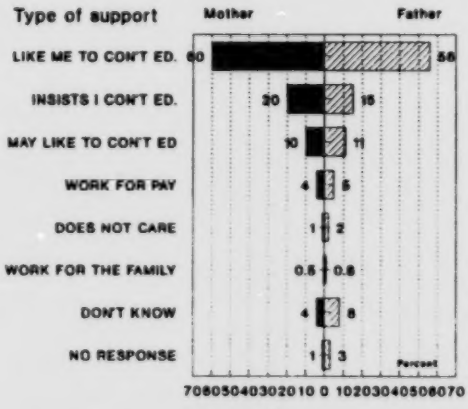


Figure 20
Students opinion of parental support for plans after finishing high school (N=7390)

The students surveyed displayed very little specific knowledge about financing education, although they had general levels of expectations about how they would find the money for their schooling. This implies that the perceptions about family commitments are not based on specific discussion of ways and means. It was also evident that most students were not expecting their families to provide a lot of financial support (see Fig. 21).

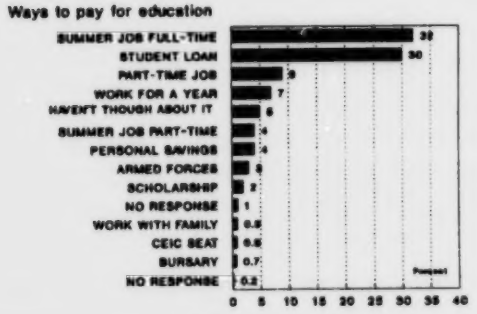


Figure 21
Ways to pay for education other than family
(N=7390)

It is of some interest that women felt more support for continued education from their mothers and fathers than did men. This perception of the students had several correlates. Fewer women than men felt a need to become self-supporting. And, a few more women than men felt that their family would borrow for their education. In general, women were more confident of financial support from their families than were the men, and they planned to rely more heavily on their families. More women than men thought they knew what financial contribution their families would make, and were somewhat more confident than males that their families would make some contribution.

What makes this most interesting is the conventional wisdom that in a traditional culture it is more important to educate the men than to educate the women. In this case more women than men were planning post-secondary education, especially at the university level. So, if the perceptions of the students are accurate, the conventional wisdom is not always true in Newfoundland.

FINANCING EDUCATION

Sources of Support

For the most part, students were not sure of the cost of continuing their education beyond high school. This may have been a factor they had not previously had to consider. However, for many it was a reality they would need to face should they pursue post-secondary education or training.

In general, Level III students planned to rely on sources outside the family to finance their post-secondary education, most often the student loan program. Women would rely on parents somewhat as a secondary source of funding while men would rely on work to a greater extent to supplement the loans. There was an expectation that work would be available, as it had been for several years, through government supported student programs.

The degree of financial support that students thought was available from their families was related to their plans for the year after graduation (see Fig. 22). In general, students who believed that their parents were prepared to shoulder most or all of the financial burden of their education

were more likely to be planning to continue their education in the coming year.

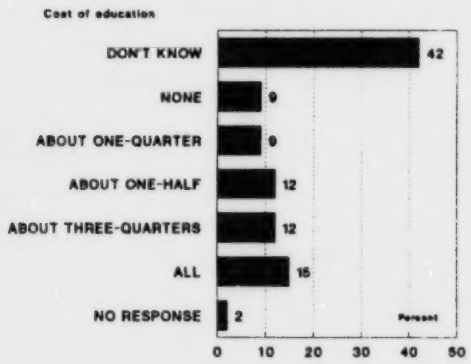


Figure 22
Proportion of education student think family will pay for
(N=7390)

The level of dependence on parental support was related to student perception of the level of financial help they could expect. Greater reliance was placed on loans as the primary means of financing education as the perception of parents' ability to provide support was lower. About 14% planned to depend primarily on work.

Planning Educational Financing

Although the highest proportion of those planning to go to post-secondary institutions intended to rely on loans and bursaries, they knew remarkably little about educational loans, how much they could expect to borrow, criteria for qualifying, and procedures for applying. Women tended to say that they knew somewhat more about getting scholarships, bursaries and loans. However the evidence was that they knew very little about this, and only slightly more than men. A few more women than men knew of somewhere to go to find out the information.

A very large proportion of the students either did not know, or did not say how much support they thought that they could expect from their parents. Persons not knowing about this were somewhat more likely to either be hoping or definitely planning to continue their education than were persons who perceived no support at all from their parents. However, they were much less likely to be definitely planning to continue than were persons who anticipated even one-fourth support from their families. They tended also to be planning somewhat greater reliance on parental support and less on loans, despite their lack of knowledge of their parents' willingness to provide the support. This is an important group because it is such a large part of the total, about 43.1%. Identifying and working with this group could have more impact than working with any of the others.

The unanswered question concerns the function of the parental discussion. The fact that students who report less discussion with parents also seemed less decided about direction, and less sure of ways and means, seems to suggest that programming that helps students and their parents together to confront these important decisions would be useful for establishing student direction, and helping them to plan the ways and means.

VIEW OF THE FUTURE

Most of the students expected to be working in some career in five to ten years time. This included the 62% who planned marriage. They were more optimistic than current statistics warrant which currently show a high rate of unemployment for people who are age twenty to twenty-five. Within Newfoundland and Labrador, students foresaw growth in education, construction and health, but a decline in the

primary resources industries. In order to fully appreciate the significance of this, it should be remembered that this survey was conducted before the last two disastrous years in the fisheries. Government economic policy which is directed towards finding ways of exploiting the primary industries has not been translated into career plans according to the young people who were surveyed.

Most of the Level III students indicated that they were prepared to leave the province, if necessary, to pursue their careers (see Fig. 23). The province's economic development strategy assumes that a trained workforce can be put in place within the province in order to support development. The young people's vision of their future is different than that of the provincial government. It includes education for the majority, and employment in the careers and

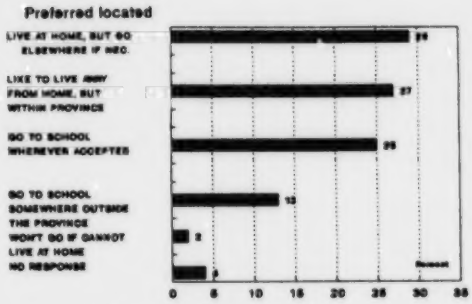
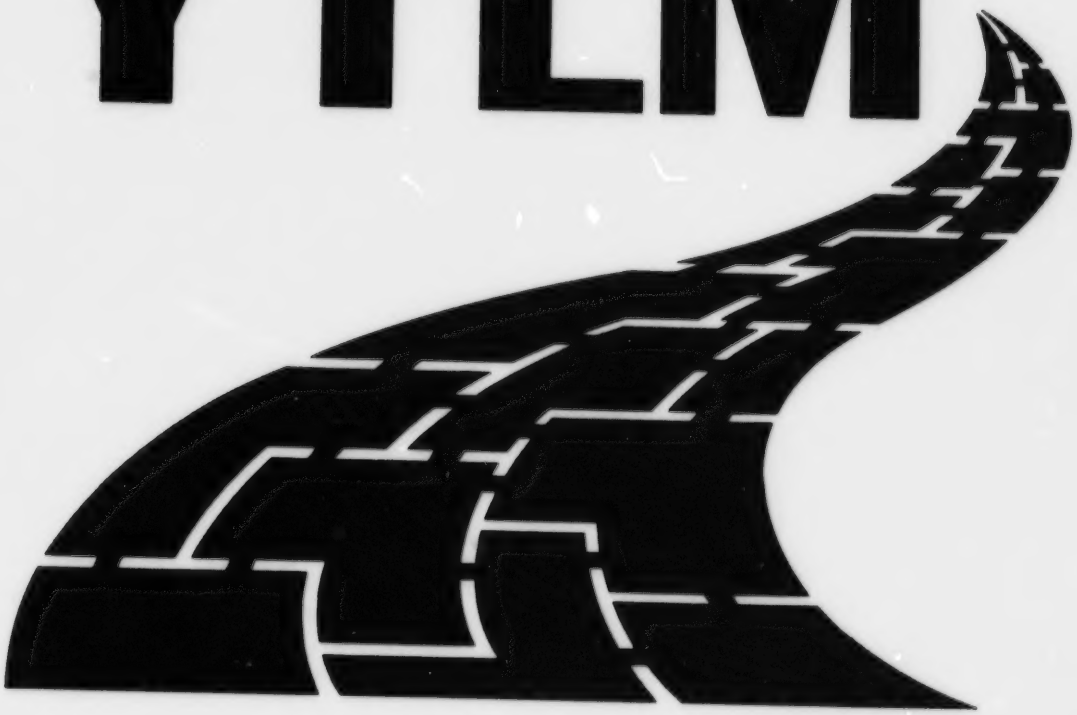


Figure 23
Preferred location for further education/training
(N=6114)

occupations for which they have trained. The indications are, however, that the jobs will have to be in place if this vision is to be sustained. Those who pursue their education will also pursue the rewards they expect, elsewhere if necessary, leaving a residual of relatively unskilled new entrants into the province's workforce.

YOUTH TRANSITION INTO THE LABOUR MARKET

YTLM



THE CLASS OF '89: INITIAL SURVEY OF LEVEL III (GRADE 12) HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

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March 1991

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A Report Prepared by:

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PREFACE

The study of youth transition into the labour market began several years ago, in the spring of 1987, when the Newfoundland and Labrador's Department of Career Development and Advanced Studies advertised for proposals to prepare a longitudinal study design of the transition of youth. The authors, then part of the Institute of Educational Research and Development, Faculty of Education, Memorial University, made a submission and were awarded the contract. A report was made that became the basis for YTLM, the Transition of Youth into the Labour Market. The Department and the Institute are no more, each the casualty of restructuring. Now, the authors, members of the Centre for Educational Research and Development within the Faculty of Education, work on the project with the Newfoundland Department of Education. Funding is provided by the Canada/Newfoundland Youth Employment Strategies Program and the Department of Education.

The project is a developmental study of the process of youth as they make the difficult transition into the labour market of Newfoundland and Labrador. The study was undertaken with the broad purpose of developing an understanding of the aspirations and needs of youth to better devise programming to help to meet these needs. The data gathered by the project can be analyzed on behalf of all agencies in the province, in addition to the government, who are involved in programming for youth.

A theoretical model has developed from the study which is used to help investigate the developmental span beginning with the completion or termination of the high school experience of youth, and continuing through age 25. Special, but not exclusive attention is given to the problems of young women and rural Newfoundlanders.

The project consists of two parallel yet interrelated studies, one focusing on the full cohort of over 9000 Level III high school students at the end of the 1988-89 school year, and a second, which focuses on the full year cohort of over 2100 students (grade 7 to Level III) who dropped

out of school between Easter, 1987 and Easter 1988. So far, the early school leavers have been surveyed twice and the Level III group three times. There are plans to survey each on two to three more occasions. The questions asked during the surveys focus on themes common to all youth over the time span of the study, presently anticipated to extend through approximately age 25 for most subjects. In addition, other data have been provided through the Newfoundland Department of Education records and added to the project data base.

The local school systems were used to access the Level III sample and administer the initial questionnaire. School authorities were also instrumental in identifying and setting up the initial interviews with the early school leavers.

Three general questions are being asked in the overall analysis of the data collected for the project:

Question One. What is the nature of the transition of Newfoundland youth into the labour market, and what are the patterns of transition which relate to success and failure in transition?

Question Two. What is the status of the individual with respect to: 1) aspirations and work values; 2) search skills; 3) decision characteristics; 4) job-holding skills; 5) context factors; and 6) job-related skills?

Question Three. What changes take place through a transition stage in terms of: 1) aspirations and work values; 2) search skills; 3) decision characteristics; 4) job-holding skills; 5) context factors; and 6) job-related skills?

A number of groups of youth have been targeted for special attention as the project proceeds. These are significant groups of youth who are already known to enter into the transition with serious difficulties to overcome if the transition is to be successful. They include young women

completing high school, but not entering post-secondary training; rural youth completing high school, but not entering a post-secondary institution; youth who drop out prior to entering Level I in high school; youth who drop out after entering Level I; persons failing to complete post-secondary programs; persons who drop out who apply for upgrading (and those who do not apply); persons evolving a pattern of UIC and "make work" dependency; and other groups as they emerge from the analysis of the data.

Information from the study has already been used by a number of groups working with youth: several of the local youth strategies committees have received information about the nature of early school-leaving in their areas; WISE (Women in Science and Engineering has received information that has helped in the evaluation of their work; and the Department of Education has used information in the study of youth who leave the Province to attend post-secondary training programs.

This is the second of several reports by the authors about the study. It focuses on the Level III students who are typically nearing the end of their final year in high school: a major transition point in their lives. The next two reports will be on the follow-up surveys of each of the two groups. One will look at the status of the early school leavers approximately 18 months after initial survey; the other will report on the Level III cohort 6 months after graduation time.

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the project, and for their willingness to continue to help us with the planned follow-up questionnaires as the study continues.

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March 1991

SECTION ONE

INTRODUCTION

The Study of the Transition of Youth into the Labour Market is a longitudinal study planned to cover a seven year period from the time that Newfoundland youth are preparing to leave public school until most are prepared for job entry or have had time to establish themselves as workers and homemakers. The primary purpose of this study is to focus on a special aspect of the transitional process: the set of accommodations that take place as youth develop to assume a position in the labour market.

This report, the second in a series to be based on the study, focuses on the high school Level III (grade 12) student at a major transition point in their lives. Typically, they would be in their final year of senior high school and many would be considering future work and/or post-secondary educational opportunities.

LEVEL III STUDENTS

Completion of Level III represents an implicit choice point that is not formally institutionalized but does carry with it the imperative of custom. A person at this stage chooses the direction that the next stage of life will take: a failure to choose is also a choice. It is generally accepted that this is the time to take charge of one's life, and decisions about one's future are expected.

The choice process is very complex, and comprises two very different activities. The first is the development of aspiration, which involves a process of gathering and digesting information about the possible career direction to take. In the second activity, aspiration is translated into search for an entry to the next career stage. For some students the goal is acceptance into a program of post-secondary study. Others seek entry into full-time or part-time employment. There are those who enter a planned leisure period; and those, primarily women, who plan to take up life as homemakers. Possibly some engage in part-time employment at the same time as they participate in post-secondary study or homemaking.

Inevitably, some Level III graduates enter a period of indecision and are unemployed or elect to continue in general studies at an institution of higher learning. Some of the students seem to develop no aspirations, and do not engage in search while in high school.

The nature, extent and timing of search at this stage is ill-defined. It is dictated in part by the general nature of the aspiration. Admission policies, for example, establish time lines for the search activities relating to post-secondary training and education. On the other hand, no such deadlines are implicit in the search for the entry level job. Therefore, active search at this stage can reasonably extend well beyond the completion of Level III, and while high school is the support system usually thought of at this time, other support services could be involved. Understanding the sources of help that Level III students use in this

transition stage is important. Knowledge of the work world and knowledge of educational opportunites are also part of the transition process. The status of the Level III students as they begin this crucial stage in their lives is the focus of this initial report.

THE CONCEPT OF TRANSITION

Over the past years, work has come to be thought of as an activity that is separate from education, homemaking and social activity. It is useful to remember that this view of work is an artifact of the industrial revolution; it was not always this way. In earlier days, work was introduced early as part of the life of a person, particularly in rural, resource-based economies. One trained for work by working, and in the process became intimately identified with the work that one did. Formal education was reserved for only a few, and it did not play a significant role in preparing the majority to begin to work. Apprenticeship was the main route to learning a skilled trade.

Increasing industrialization changed this pattern. Employment in agriculture and other resource-based industry both declined in absolute numbers in a dramatic way, and moved away from small family operations, to large business-oriented operations. The largest employer became industry, which required skills learned largely on the job. As the trades became more technical, formal training in the schools became a normal prerequisite to entrance into apprenticeship. Increasingly, work was viewed as separate from other aspects of living. Education came to be viewed as preparation for work, but somehow separate from work. In fact, work became separated from most other aspects of life so that the sense of early involvement in work was lost, and the need to make a transition to work became part of the development of most young adults.

This view of work, and its relationship to other life functions has been changing, never more rapidly than in recent years. The change is due to

a number of factors. First, it has become increasingly accepted that work contributes in a major way to the overall view that people create of themselves. It is a socializing agent as well as an economic necessity. It is a major factor in defining who one is in the social order, so that the separation between work and outside social and leisure activity is not very distinct. The workplace exerts a major influence on the social well-being of the individual, and in turn, the work of a person will be strongly influenced by social factors. Social influences can be expected to play a major role in transition.

Second, the workplace is becoming subject to major stresses, by the increasing dependence on technology; by the increasing rate at which the changeover to technology is occurring; by the amount of information that is needed by modern workers; and by the increasing sophistication of the means for transmitting information--in particular information about the use of technology. The worker is increasingly required to prepare for work that is constantly changing, so that he or she must come to the workplace with skills that can adapt to change. In addition, as technology changes, old jobs disappear to be replaced by work that requires quite different skills. This means that workers must be educated in new skills, with possible dislocation to their personal lives.

Finally, the work force is changing in very important ways with the entrance of larger numbers of women than ever before. The view of homemaking as a distinct option is becoming blurred as increasing numbers of women pursue careers. For women, increasing acceptance of their role as wage-earners has made their planning much more difficult as they try to resolve the resulting conflicts between this and the more traditional options that they have. The recent success of women in the labour market is changing the status of men. Soon, they too may have to concider less traditional work options in order to be competitive.

The result is a lifestyle for people which combines the life functions of work, education, family and social activity and leisure. Each of the four components must accommodate, and be accommodated by, each of the

others. This is the process of transition: the events, activities, decisions, and so forth, that lead to this accommodation. In the broadest sense, the criterion of a successful transition is the degree to which each life function supports all the others. Thus the study of transition into the labour market becomes a study of the accommodations that are made as young people undertake adult responsibility.

In Newfoundland, where the economy has remained rooted in the rural, resource-based activities of the small community, the problem differs from areas that have been more heavily industrialized. Both technological change and declining resources have combined to limit job opportunities in traditional endeavors. In an environment requiring a high degree of adaptability, the available evidence suggests that Newfoundlanders have not been as successful as needed to make the required adjustments.

The problem for Newfoundlanders is not as simple as the acquisition of new skills. Jobs are disappearing from the rural economy without others emerging to take their place. Learning new skills is not enough. People in this situation must either create new kinds of work in their communities, or they must also learn a new way of life, and cut long-established community and family ties. Becoming more adaptable in the workplace will not be enough to make a successful transition. People will also have to be more adaptable in their personal lives, and perhaps learn to find personal satisfaction in new environments.

LABOUR MARKET TRANSITION AS A GLOBAL PROBLEM

The problem of transition is a global problem. Issues of youth unemployment, transition understanding and solutions to the difficulties are preoccupations that exist worldwide and are coming under increasing scrutiny. Ruebens (1981) found that the international agencies studying this field tended to be in advance of their individual members. However, some of their shared concerns were: (1) the special transition problems

of early school leavers; (2) inadequate preparation in the basic competencies; (3) an insufficient acquaintance with the structure and organization of the work world; (4) too little or over specialized vocational training, regardless of the sector; and (5) faults in all the social institutions responsible for easing the transition.

Banducci (1984) noted youth unemployment to be typically two or three times higher than adult unemployment and revolved around poor preparation in school, limited practical experience in business and industry, as well as difficulties in skill training acquisition and apprenticeship. Youth, it seems, are negatively affected by all types of unemployment--structural, seasonal, cyclical and functional. The costs to them include lost earnings, interest, credibility, and psychological problems, as well as secondary personal costs associated with unproductive time, for example, crime and drug and alcohol abuse (LeRoy, 1984; Picus & Cohen, 1982).

Transition to work takes on many dimensions. Current societal needs call for collaborative efforts and structures, matching employer needs with employee needs and skills (Banducci, 1984; LeRoy, 1984). Selz (1980) defined employability as the ability to get, keep, and change jobs, and consisted of a number of factors such as basic skills, work experience, work orientation, vocational skills and job search skills. Rosenthal & Pilot (1988) stressed the need for different kinds of information for both initial and ongoing work transition. The need for transfer skills is also gaining prominence in the work literature. These are skills that can be acquired (Fitzgerald, 1986).

Canadian Labour Market Transition

Considerable work has been conducted in the United States. There is also a longitudinal study of youth in Australia which is ongoing (Williams, 1988; Williams et al, 1980, 1981). By contrast, as Krahn et al. (1985) noted in a report to Alberta Manpower, little research on youth in the Canadian labour market can be found. A notable exception has been the

work of Mason (1985) who reviewed a number of approaches to analyzing the transition from school to work. He also proposed a framework which viewed transition as occurring over several years. This transition usually commenced in the early teenage years incorporating part time and casual employment, then through a period where education and training are combined, and eventually leading to more or less stable employment. This is accomplished with varying degrees of ease and success. The model demonstrated that:

> while the overall progression is linear from school to work, increasingly the pathways to permanent, primary employment take several directions, and further, that processes feature feedback and reversals. (p. 51)

He further noted that the process was not immutable and linear and that contact with the labour market in the primary school years often occurs. There is continuous interaction between the education and labour market systems and, in concurrence with the emerging perception in the entire field, lifelong learning is on the increase.

Mason determined that longitudinal micro date is required to understand the relationship between social factors, in particular human development, and youth unemployment. Wiseman (1983) suggested that research into background factors is highly contextual. Because these factors can be idiosyncratic it may not be possible to generalize findings from studies done outside Newfoundland to the situation in Newfoundland.

More recently, the youth transition research of Walsh (1989) established that over 70% of Ontario high school youth had employment experience, and that a transition to work was in fact a "...transition in the nature of work, not just a transition to work for the first time" (p. 23). Most students also expected to enter post-secondary education.

Other investigations have shown the long term impact of college and university on students is very positive in terms of high participation rates in the labour force and of low unemployment rates (Beach, 1977;

Manitoba Department of Labour and Manpower, 1980). Gender and educational achievement are two of the strongest factors relating to the kinds of jobs and careers started by youth. The choices of schools and major or program of study, aim a person towards a particular place in society's occupational structure (Anisef, Paasche & Torrittin, 1980; Sankey, 1985; Cullen, 1978). Many students presently indicate a strong commitment to continuing education (Forrester et al., 1983).

The segregation of the labour market on the basis of sex appears to have a profound impact on the kinds of jobs men and women obtain after completing their education; also the majors and programs that men and women take in post-secondary institutions seem to feed into and reinforce the sex segregation of occupations (Anisef et al., 1980; Manitoba Department of Labour and Manpower, 1980). A recent analysis of universities and colleges in Ontario suggested that institutional mandates or goals influence occupational outcomes, independent of number of years of formal schooling, and are important in understanding patterns of mobility and stratification (Anisef et al., 1980).

Newfoundland Youth

Some studies have been undertaken to determine the factors which influence the career choice of Newfoundland youth. While a number of these studies focused on specific geographic areas of the province, the findings for the most part revealed several basic determinants of career choice. Issues raised in the past are still being addressed today.

One-half of all young Newfoundlanders between the ages of 15 and 24 who live in rural areas have less than a high school graduation and are unemployed (Royal Commission, 1986). The potential for problems remains high. As long as such conditions continue to exist and there is need for a highly skilled future workforce, youth unemployment will remain a high priority for politicians (Picus & Cohen, 1982). Youth unemployment cannot be viewed in a vacuum however, but as a component of an economical and political picture that includes the issues

of general employment, social welfare and the economy (Forrester et al., 1983; Picus & Cohen, 1982; Reubens, 1981).

Alvi's (1981) comment that the nature and meaning of work cannot be studied outside its social milieu, becomes more focused when it is understood that many of the economic failures of Newfoundland have resulted from lack of accounting of contextual factors associated with the province including the rural nature of our society (Royal Commission, 1986).

The preliminary report of the Committee on 1973 Enrolment (1973) concluded that many students prematurely discontinue their education and fail to proceed to post-secondary educational institutions because of deprivation. This deprivation arises in the form of inequality of educational opportunity and accessibility resulting from many factors in the social environment: lack of adequate finances; lack of motivation and encouragement; lack of communication about educational possibilities; lack of knowledge about course offerings of, and entrance requirements to post-secondary institutions; and lack of knowledge of the social and academic environments of these schools.

Tilley (1975) in his study of background variables and school related variables on post-secondary school plans found differences between the predictors of post-secondary school plans of males and females. For males the order of predictors by rank was: study program, occupational expectations, self-concept of academic ability and family size. He reported the following for females: occupational expectations, study program, self-concept of academic ability, family size, parental education, area of residence.

Many of the authors writing about the Newfoundland situation strongly advised that guidance counselling in the schools should concentrate more fully on career guidance and vocational counselling (May & Sheppard, 1980; Wiseman, 1983; Senior & Snelgrove, 1974; Best et al., 1976; Shave, 1984). The preliminary report of the Committee on 1973

Enrolment advised on the need for systematic and comprehensive research in education as the basis for the formulation of educational policy for the province.

The Royal Commission (1986) reported that even with employment opportunities growing faster for women than men in Newfoundland, and with the unemployment rate about the same, the female participation rate was lower than that of males; and even in the same job category females were paid less. Also, they still experienced great difficulty breaking ground in many male-dominated occupations. Women face labour market barriers in terms of both entry and progression (Ministerial Advisory Committee on Women's Issues in Education, 1983).

Many authors concurred that women seeking employment find only low pay and low skill level jobs (Ministerial Advisory Committee on Women's Issues in Education; Montgomery, 1982; Batten et al., 1974). The jobs are generally concentrated in five traditional areas: clerical; sales positions; service positions; teaching; and hospital workers (Ministerial Advisory Committee on Women's Issues in Education; Newfoundland Status of Women Council, 1980; Batten et al.). The proportion of women in traditionally male occupations is quite small, although more women are beginning to enter a wider range of occupations. The advent of new technologies is affecting the position of women in the labour force. Many traditionally female jobs are being phased out because of the introduction of new technology and women are finding themselves being displaced from the work place because their skills are no longer adequate or necessary in the changing labour market (Ministerial Advisory Committee on Women's Issues in Education).

Kealey (1986) suggested some policy directions that the Newfoundland government should take in addressing the problem of women's labour force participation. She pointed to the need for guidance and counselling, and the re-education of teachers, as well as a greater sex balance among teachers and administrators. More attention and publicity to labour market requirements and positive action in the areas of math, science and

computer skills for women as well as equal access to job training were emphasized in her report.

ECONOMIC RECOVERY AND THE LABOUR MARKET TRANSITION

The recent Royal Commission on Employment and Unemployment in Newfoundland (1986) concluded that "Newfoundlanders must pursue with vigour a new vision of the future, building on our strengths so that, together, we may forge a strong economy and society and a new sense of self-reliance" (p. 457). Newfoundland and Labrador is a predominantly rural province where 32% of the population live in communities of less than 1000 people and 60.2% in communities of less than 5000 people. Our economic history is one of failed attempts to establish an industrialized society and, although having some comparative advantage, relatively unsuccessful attempts to stabilize our primary resource sectors of mining, fishing, and forestry (Royal Commission, 1986). The province has the lowest labour force participation rate in Canada, the highest unemployment rate, and the highest youth unemployment rate. The aspirations of the Royal Commission only hint at the major shifts in policy and practice required to achieve such a vision.

It is within this context that youth make, or may attempt to make, some form of transition into the labour market. The House Commission envisioned a route to economic recovery for the province that depended on the existence of an educated and trained workforce in place to fuel the development of small, local enterprises to exploit new technologies. In order to achieve this end, an entire social pattern has to be reoriented from one where education is not necessary for individual economic success and well-being, to a situation where education is recognized as essential. The old skills, learned largely on the job in an economy that was in place must be replaced by skills and knowledge learned in the classroom. These new skills could be used in work that is far removed

from the experience of the prospective workers, in enterprises not yet visualized, let alone funded, developed and put in place. For this to work, the process of redirecting training and education must also keep the present population where it is now: in the communities of Newfoundland.

THE PROCESS OF WORK TRANSITION

The Goals of Transition

A general view of the study of transition is that it will focus on the adjustments or accommodations that are made by young people to satisfy individual goals and develop a satisfying lifestyle. A study of youth transition into the labour market cannot produce results unless it takes the more general view that transition into work is only a part of the overall transition being made. Indeed, it may be viewed by some as a relatively unimportant part.

The process of transition is life-long. At any point work transition may be regarded by society-at-large as successful if the individual is engaged in activity that could lead to the acquisition of skills and attitudes that are believed to contribute to the goal of economic independence. Of particular importance are those skills that are believed to lead to greater adaptability in the work force. They may be generally categorized as the training, job search, decision-making and job-holding attributes possessed by the individual. In a somewhat different but critical category are those attributes associated with ability to generate new employment opportunity.

Education and Training

In our society, education is a universally valued activity as it leads, in general, to greater success in the obtainment of employment. We do not make any distinction at this point between educational and training

programs, preferring instead to make distinctions in terms of their contribution to the societal work transition goals.

Studies, virtually without number, have attested to the fact that the highest levels of employment are enjoyed by the more highly educated sectors of the society. While the educated tend also to be better compensated as well, it does not necessarily follow that the economic benefits that they enjoy are commensurate with the investment in education that they have made. It seems possible that education may contribute to work transition goals in ways other than the obvious provision of skills required to qualify for existing employment opportunity. It is evident that a clear decision about the usefulness of an educational experience is difficult to make, and that transition success should not be judged solely on the basis of participation in education or training, or in terms of job-holding and income.

The rate of youth unemployment is high in Canada and despite a great deal of effort by schools and government agencies, an increasingly large proportion of youth have, and will continue to have, difficulty in making the transition from the world of school to the world of work without proper career guidance (Sankey, 1985; Cullen, 1978; MacKenzie, 1982). Also, career development is viewed as a lifelong process (Cullen; and Sankey) that should begin at the kindergarten level and continue on through into high school, and post-secondary institutions. Some students realize that their choice of program was a mistake and despite the often high youth unemployment rates, intend to go back to school to try again (Clark & Zsigmond, 1981). There is a lower rate of unemployment for students with post-secondary education completion (Beach, 1977; Manitoba Department of Labour and Manpower, 1980).

The Transition Process

It is clear that to pursue the societal goal of economic independence, it is necessary to acquire more than the skills required to perform a job. Attributes in support of the work transition itself are also required. An

aspirant for employment must identify available work opportunities, decide which opportunities to pursue, and once successful in gaining employment, must retain the job.

Job search attributes are those that are associated with the identification of, and competition for, employment opportunity. This may be broadened to include more general career search, including the search for educational experiences.

Knowledge is the first attribute of importance. In the literature, this is inevitably described as knowledge of the "world of work," although the knowledge required is more extensive than information about available work (and career) opportunity. In addition to this, the individual needs to know about educational opportunities that exist, ways to gain entrance to and ways to finance education.

More than this, a metaknowledge is required. The individual needs to know about information sources and how to access and exploit them to get the necessary information. As development progresses, and the work environment changes, knowledge about work will have to be updated to suit the current transition state of the individual.

An aspiration is required to organize search. It may be as vague as wanting to find "some kind of job" or as specific as "I want to be a plumber." Possession of a job aspiration is an essential component of search, and therefore the development of aspiration is of great interest in the study of work transition. Of special interest are those persons who appear to have no aspirations. Implied in an aspiration is a motive to work, so absence of aspiration implies that the person sees no relationship between work and the attainment of personal satisfactions.

The individual may have an entirely different view of the reasons to work than society does. It is only from the individual's perspective that the process of work transition can be understood and influenced. The process is governed by the priority placed on the individual work motives,

and the probability that these priorities can be met by work of a particular kind. This is the nature of the accommodation that takes place in transition. Understanding the transition to work first requires an understanding of the role played by work in the satisfaction of individual motives.

The Context of Transition

Transitional decisions take place in an environmental context that operates to control both opportunity, and the perception that people have of their opportunities. The number and type of jobs actually available to young people, and their beliefs about this, influence search decisions considerably.

The context is the real world which a person must face in making the work transition. It is multifaceted, and much of it is outside the control of the individuals involved. The macro context is comprised of the major, widespread influences that are distanced from individuals. These are the economic trends, major policy changes of government, and the introduction of radical innovation (such as the new technology). These factors can be expected to influence all persons in the same way, so the individual perception of these factors is important in explaining why people respond to them differently.

Institutional factors are somewhat closer to the person in the street. Examples are the minimum wage, entrance requirements for educational programs, educational programs that are available, and the demand for programs. Yet others are collective agreements, limits on enrolment, and unemployment insurance. These factors do not always influence all persons in the same way. For example, the entrance requirements of Memorial University would apply to all applicants, but the quality and breadth of the revised high school program varies from school to school, causing variations in the options available to students who are nonetheless restricted to enrolment in a specific school.

An interesting aspect of the contextual factors is the conventional wisdom that develops around them. Reports in the media, statements by politicians and the experiences of acquaintances all contribute to the way that the individual perceives the context. Education is the only counter to the public misperceptions of policy, trends, and other factors that nonetheless have an important bearing on transitional decisions.

A fair amount of research evidence exists indicating that the possession of job-related skills is not the most important attribute of successful employees. The best employees also possess important job-holding attributes such as, interpersonal skills, work habits and attitudes that will make them preferred over others who could even have better job skills.

Decision Points in Transition

The study of transition is, in effect, the study of individuals from two perspectives. From one perspective, the individual's developmental characteristics such as personality, self-concept, cognition and achievement are addressed. From the other perspective, the individual's experiences associated with this development are taken into account. It is evident that individual development is a function of the experiences of that person, but the relationship is recursive. The state of the individual development will, in its turn, govern the direction of experience, in so far as alternative experiential opportunity is available to the individual. The individual goals of this process can be defined in terms of the individual developmental process: among them are a sense of security, self-esteem that comes from a positive view of self and one's relationship with the community, and a sense of fulfillment from the engagement of one's capacities. Many different experiences will lead to the attainment of these goals.

The issue of choice is central in the Youth Transition Study because of the relationship that can be said to exist between individual choice and the attainment of societal goals. Individual choice establishes the pattern of work transition. For example, a decision to stay in school is considered to be evidence of a more adaptive career pattern than a decision to leave school early, because it is assumed that persons with more education and

training will be more adaptive to a wider range of employment opportunities. However, choice is made on the basis of individual interests and satisfactions. In some way or another, all contemporary theories of vocational development make this assumption. The attainment of the societal goals for work transition must be understood from the perspective of satisfaction of the individual goals, and the role that this plays in choice.

A study of work transition, then, will focus on the decision points, where a new accommodation is being made in the transitional process. Choices vary in character. Some signal a dramatic shift in the developmental pattern of the individual. Others are more incremental in their impact. Some are precipitated by a dramatic event, for example, a declaration of redundancy. Others develop over a long period from the personal reflections of the individual making the decision. All choices are preceded by an initiating event of some sort, and involve some preparation, however brief, such as search.

Types of choices can be described. Some are institutional and virtually mandated. Most of the choices in high school fall into this category. Others are mandated by custom. The decision about what to do after high school falls into this category. Many choices come at unpredictable times, but most people will face them at one point or another in their lives. For this study, the most important decisions concern the timing of search for new educational and job opportunities, and the kind of education and job opportunities that should be pursued and chosen. There are a number of decisions about personal life that relate importantly to decisions about work. If and when to marry and where to live are examples.

We focus on the choices made in the career development of the young person, and the activity that accompanies the choices that are made. Recognizing that some choices are "non-choices," in that the person does not always engage in decision-making activity in support of the choices, we seek first to define where these major points of departure tend to fall in the lives of young people.

Completing the formal secondary school program (receiving a high school diploma) is often regarded as a first vital step in the transition process for young people. For youth in Newfoundland high school graduation occurs normally at age eighteen. At this time decisions are made concerning post-secondary education, work or other decision options. For most, however, choices are likely to centre around education and/or work opportunities with considerable attention being given to provincial post-secondary institutions and training places.

Defining The Success of Work Transition

As earlier discussed, work transition is developmental. It comprises a process of accommodation of work as well as educational and social experience, beginning with required attendance in school and continuing through combinations of school, work, duties in the home and leisure time. At any time in a longitudinal study, people will be in a number of different phases of these varying patterns of transition. One of the major problems of a study like this is to identify the common patterns so that they can be examined as possible targets for programming. A second problem is the description of success of a pattern at any given phase. This is important in order to examine the effectiveness of programs that are currently affecting patterns of transition within the study sample.

In general, it can be assumed that all elements of the work transition process may be examined at any stage. It may not be assumed, however, that the same measures of success can be universally applied at all stages to all patterns that may be observed. Quite obviously, a measure of the success of job search must be different for people searching for educational programs than that which would apply when looking for a job. Likewise, measures of the attainment of the societal goal of economic independence will be different for those who are working and those who are in school--even though both may be properly judged on this basis.

The problem of defining success in transition is, therefore, no trivial matter, and is easiest when measured from the point of view of the

individual. Individual satisfaction with the accommodation that has been made socially, vocationally, educationally, and the sense of accompanying fulfillment is the criterion from the perspective of the individual. In a real sense, people can be asked quite simply if they are generally pleased with the way that their lives are going.

If this was all there was to it, there would be no need for this study. But, the social perspective on the success of transition is also at issue. This presents a set of more complex judgements about the worth of the accommodations to the society. These judgements differ depending on who makes them and the reasons that they are made. The local community may have an entirely different perspective than the provincial or federal government concerning the value of an economic contribution. At this stage of the study, therefore, we have chosen simply to describe, and we have tried not to judge. To do so would betray our own biases concerning these matters. If a bias exists, it is in the material that we have chosen to study and report, material which focuses primarily on the educational and vocational aspects of transition. Our choice of this material is based on the generally held view by the society-at-large of the importance of the educational and vocational experience.

SECTION TWO

PROCEDURES SUMMARY

IDENTIFYING THE LEVEL III STUDENTS

Survey Strategy

The focus of YTLM is on youth from the time of secondary school leaving until about age 25. The function of the initial survey was to obtain a view of youth at school-leaving time. The secondary schooling process was not initially a major issue, although the findings of the initial survey would inevitably focus attention on that process.

The decision was made at the onset of this phase of the Youth Transition Project to identify and use a full cohort of students who were nearing the completion of their Level III year. This included both Level III students, as well as those who had returned for a fourth year of senior high school to complete graduation requirements and obtain a diploma. It was anticipated that such a large sample was needed due to the longitudinal nature of the study and the associated attrition of the sample over time, and also to provide the potential to focus later on specific groups within the sample.

Schools were asked to identify all students who were classified as Level III. Officially this would include all students who had earned 23 or more credits. For most this would mean that graduation could be expected that year, as the normal course load of 13 credits would give the 36 needed for graduation. Naturally, it did not work this way for each case. A student could earn 36 credits without having the suite of core credits required for graduation, or alternately he or she could have selected electives in areas that did not qualify them for graduation. Because the option to move at a slower pace is available, the required 36 credits are not always accumulated in three years time. A fair number of students return for a fourth year of high school, the so-called Level IV student, and it may be supposed that some of the students fell into this category.

The latter part of the Level III year was also considered an appropriate time to gather data on school students since it was a point in their lives when a major transition was about to take place. Typically plans are being made at that time with respect to future work and educational opportunities upon leaving the secondary school system. These would be very pertinent to the research in question.

Timing of the administration of the questionnaires was also considered important, and in order to minimize school disruption during the time of year when students would be preparing for final examinations, it was decided to request that students complete the questionnaires at the end of April. This was shortly after the schools' Easter break, yet several weeks prior to the onset of Department of Education examinations. For the most part, this arrangement worked out well.

Schools in the Survey

A list of all schools within the province that offered Level III during the 1988-89 school year was obtained from the Department of Education. Initial contact was made by mail with principals of these schools in

February 1989 following school board superintendent approval. Lists of Level III homeroom teachers and the number of students in each class were sought from each school together with permission to administer the questionnaire. Such lists were used as the basis to package questionnaires for delivery and subsequent administration in the schools.

Excellent cooperation was received from the schools, and most principals returned the information promptly by mail. Only 12% required phone contact to obtain permission and needed information. Nearly all schools contacted (199 out of 201) agreed to participate in the study. The only two schools not contacted were one private school and one native school, neither of which, it was considered, would affect the validity of the study.

The number of schools by type is shown in Table 2.1. The majority (150) were typically smaller schools that were either all-grade (K to Level III) or junior-senior high schools with grades seven through Level III. The total Level III population in all schools was estimated to be 10323 based on Department of Education data. This differed some what from the actual numbers returned to us from the schools which reported a total of 9611 Level III students. The discrepancy is not accounted for by the two small schools not included in the sample, but is perhaps in part due to differences in the time of year when students are actually counted for different logistical purposes by the educational system. Overall, the problem of maintaining accurate information on all schools is a difficult one given that students are moving into and out of the system throughout the year. It is also possible that a number of students had dropped out of Level III by the time schools were asked to provide counts for this survey. The discrepancy in numbers was not considered to be a factor that would affect the validity of the study.

As further examination of the information in Table 2.1 shows, the senior high school students from Level I-III types of schools are under-represented in the sample. The other types of schools, apart from grade nine through Level III schools, are somewhat over-represented.

Table 2.1
Comparison of schools with Level III populations by school type and study representation

Schools in province		Nfld. Level III population		Study participants	
Type	Freq.	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent
I-III	15	3401	32.9	1858	25.1
K-III	75	1272	12.3	1089	14.7
4-III	4	182	1.8	182	2.5
6-III	3	161	1.6	135	1.8
7-III	76	3086	29.9	2477	33.5
8-III	15	946	9.2	742	10.0
9-III	13	1275	12.3	907	12.3
Totals	201	10323	100.0	7390	100.0

Note: Includes both Level III students as well as those completing a fourth year of senior high school.

Provincial numbers based on statistics obtained from the department of education for 1989.

Schools in the province includes a private and a native school not included in the survey.

QUESTIONNAIRE

Development

The initial form of the questionnaire was developed as part of the original *Youth Transition into the Labour Market, a Longitudinal Study Design* (Spain, Sharpe & Wiseman, 1987) document. It was based on the general research questions being posed as well as a thorough review of related literature. Most of the items were developed specifically for this study.

The questionnaire was field tested on two large groups of Level III students from two different schools, after which some modifications were made.

The final form of the questionnaire emerged following some refinements based on experience with the early school leaver phase of the transition project. This resulted in a 22 page questionnaire, *Youth Transition into the Labour Market Study: Career Plans Attitudes Knowledge Survey 1989*, containing 76 questions, many with sub-parts, organized under three sections.

Based in part on the field testing, it was estimated that 45 minutes to one hour would be required for students to complete the questionnaire. Principals and home room teachers were therefore advised that students would typically need two 40 minute blocks of school time in order to have sufficient time to fill it out. It was suggested that this could be facilitated by having students complete sections A and B in one sitting, and section C of the questionnaire in a second sitting.

Administration

The packages of questionnaires were delivered or mailed to schools over the Easter break for administration to Level III homeroom groups during the last two weeks in April of 1989. Most schools were able to administer the questionnaires at that time. However it was the end of May by the time all schools with the exception of two had returned the questionnaires to the research centre. One school neglected to participate, and the returns of another were lost in the mail. Also, in one school, only two of five identified classes of students completed the questionnaires. Each of these schools was a large senior high school and resulted in the loss of about 430 Level III subjects.

THE SAMPLE

The resulting sample consisted of 7390 Level III students. This represented 76.9% of the 9611 students initially identified by the schools for the study. If the 430 students who were missed are taken into account, then the return rate becomes 80.5%.

Some checks were made on the approximately 20% of students who did not complete the questionnaire to see if there was any bias in the sample. This was done by phoning a number of the schools from which returns appeared to be lower than anticipated. We were assured by the principal in each case that the numbers of students missing from classes on the day of questionnaire administration were quite normal and random. That is, no specific or special groups of students were missed. It is interesting to note however, that the schools with larger populations were those with the most students missing.

The types of school from which the sample originated are shown in Table 2.1. The largest numbers came, as would be expected, from the schools with grade seven to Level III (33.5%), and Level I to Level III (25.1%) since these types of schools had the largest Level III enrolment in the province. Table 2.1 also illustrates that students from those schools with only the senior high grades are under-represented in the sample having 32.9% of the provincial Level III students, yet representing only 25.1% of the sample. Conversely, but not to the same extent, the other types of schools are slightly over-represented.

DISTRIBUTION CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLE

Gender

As can be seen in Table 2.2, the study sample consisted of 47.6% males and 52.4% females. This compares with the gender distribution of the

provincial Level III students which is about evenly divided, having 50.7% females. If anything, females may be slightly over-represented in the sample.

Table 2.2
Comparison by gender of provincial Level III population with study sample

	Nfld. Level III population (N=10323)		Study sample (N=7390)	
Gender	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent
Male	5094	49.3	3519	47.6
Female	5229	50.7	3871	52.4

Denomination

The breakdown of the study sample by denominational school system categories was similar in proportions to that of the total Level III population in the province (see Table 2.3). Most (61.3%) of the sample were from the Integrated system. This was expected, and is close to the provincial proportion of 59.1%.

Rural/Urban Distribution

For the purposes of this report, the Department of Education's definition of rural/urban areas was used. Urban areas, by such definition, included the census metropolitan areas, the census agglomeration areas, and those communities with a population of 5000 or over. Rural areas were all other areas that did not fall within these categories.

Table 2.3
Comparison by denomination of provincial Level III population with study sample

	Nfld. Level III population (N=10294)		Study sample (N=7390)	
Denomination	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent
Integrated	6084	59.1	4533	61.3
Roman Catholic	3794	36.9	2515	34.0
Pentecostal Assemblies	407	4.0	333	4.5
Seventh Day Adventists	9	0.1	9	0.1

Within the province there were slightly more urban (51.6%) than rural (48.4%) students in Level III. However, this was reversed in the sample. As can be seen in Table 2.4, there is a decided rural bias since 55.4% of the students fell within that category compared to 44.6% who were in urban areas. This can be explained, in part, by the loss of respondents from the three large schools that were in areas classified as urban.

Table 2.4
Comparison by rural/urban designation of provincial Level III population with study sample

	Nfld. Level III population (N=10323)		Study sample (N=7390)	
	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent
Rural	4994	48.4	4093	55.4
Urban	5329	51.6	3297	44.6

Note: The rural/urban designation as based on the Nfld. Department of Education definition and use of these terms.

Table 2.5
Gender and rural/urban distribution of students in the sample (N=7390)

	Rural students		Urban students		Total	
Gender	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent
Male	1936	47.3 (55.0)	1583	48.0 (45.0)	3519	47.6 (100.0)
Female	2157	52.7 (55.7)	1714	52.0 (44.3)	3871	52.4 (100.0)
Total	4093	100.0	3297	100.0	7390	100.0

The distribution of rural/urban students in the sample by gender is similar for each group (see Table 2.5). About 48% of the males are in each area, and about 52% of the females are in each area.

Regional Distribution

The regions, as categorized by the Department of Education, consist of five geographic divisions within Newfoundland and Labrador. These are shown in Figure 1. Region 1 is the Avalon Peninsula, Region 2 the South

Figure 1
Province of Newfoundland and Labrador by region

Coast, Region 3 Central Newfoundland, Region 4 the West Coast, and Region 5 is all of Labrador.

The distribution of the sample by region is shown in Table 2.6. The largest proportion of students (38.25) were from the Avalon Peninsula, and the next largest (27.1%) from Region 3; Central Newfoundland. As expected, the smallest number of students (4.7%) were from Labrador. When this distribution is compared to that of all Level III students in the province, it can be seen that there is some variation, with Regions 1 and 5 being under-represented and the others being slightly over-represented.

Table 2.6
Regional comparison of study sample with provincial Level III population

	Nfld. Level III population (N=10323)		Study sample (N=7390)	
Region	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent
1	4427	42.9	2826	38.2
2	999	9.7	872	11.8
3	2519	24.4	1999	27.1
4	1754	17.0	1342	18.2
5	624	6.0	351	4.7

When the sample is examined in terms of provincial regions and rural/urban designation, it can seen from the percentage distributions in Table 2.7 that the rural areas within the regions are well represented. However, there is some variation in the urban distribution, particularly in Region 1, the Avalon Peninsula which contained 58.5% of the population compared to 54.6% of the sample.

Table 2.7
Comparison by region and rural/urban designation of provincial Level III population with study sample

Region	Rural		Urban	
	Nfld. Level III population (%) (N=4994)	Study sample (%) (N=4093)	Nfld. Level III population (%) (N=5329)	Study sample (%) (N=3297)
1	26.2	25.0	58.5	54.6
2	15.1	16.1	4.6	6.4
3	35.8	36.1	13.7	15.8
4	19.3	19.3	14.8	16.7
5	3.6	3.4	8.4	6.4

SECTION THREE

BASIC PROFILE OF STUDENTS

A comprehensive amount of information was gathered on the nature and background of the 7390 Level III students responding to the questionnaire. Some of the information relates to their home and family situation, while other information relates to their school experiences. Combined together, it presents a basic profile of the students.

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Age

The age of the students, calculated from their stated birth date to the time of the survey (May 1, 1989), ranged from 16.2 to 23.4 years. Most students (84%), as can be seen in Table 3.1, were in the 17.1 to 18.5 year old range. This would be expected given the normal age entrance requirements into, and through, the Newfoundland school system. The younger students outside this range likely entered the school system early,

Table 3.1
Age distribution
(N=7349)

Age in years	Freq.	Percent
16.0-16.5	8	0.1
16.6-17.0	22	0.3
17.1-17.5	991	13.5
17.6-18.0	2969	40.4
18.1-18.5	2199	29.9
18.6-19.0	540	7.3
19.1-19.5	342	4.7
19.6-20.0	162	2.2
Over 20	116	1.6

or were advanced through more than one grade in a year at some point. The older students may have dropped out at some time and then returned to complete high school, or may have been repeating selected courses or simply taking their high school program more slowly. It should also be noted that of all the students over the age of 18.5 years, 87% of them had repeated a grade at some point.

Place of Birth

As can be seen in Table 3.2, most of the students (90%) were born in Newfoundland and Labrador. A further 5.7% were born in Ontario, and the remainder in other provinces or outside Canada.

Table 3.2
Place of birth
(N=7245)

Birth place	Freq.	Percent
Nfld. and Labrador	6545	90.3
Ontario	410	5.7
Other provinces	196	2.7
Outside Canada	94	1.3

Time Lived in Community

Most (83%) of the students had lived in the community they were in at the time of the survey for over 10 years. A further 7.4% had lived in the same community for over 5 years (see Table 3.3).

Table 3.3
Time lived in community
(N=7370)

Time in years	Freq.	Percent
Less than 1	165	2.2
Between 1 and 2	151	2.0
Over 2, up to 5	389	5.3
Over 5, up to 10	543	7.4
Over 10	6122	83.1

Also, when asked if they had ever lived outside of Newfoundland or Labrador, 82% indicated they had never done so. Of the remaining 18%, approximately 5% had lived out of the province for up to six months, 3% for seven months to a year, and 11% for more than one year.

Their age when they had last returned to the province ranged from less than one year up to 20 years. A more detailed breakdown of this is shown in Table 3.4

Table 3.4
Age at which those students out of the province last returned (N=7390)

Age last returned	Freq.	Percent
Never out of Newfoundland	6060	82.0
Less than 6 years old	551	7.46
6 to less than 12 years old	307	4.15
12 to less than 15 years old	165	2.23
15 or more years old	307	4.15

Based on this information, it is reasonable to assume that nearly all the students would have experienced the Newfoundland junior and senior high school system serving their home communities. Overall, most students, 93.6%, had been in the Newfoundland school system since age 12, and the majority, 90.5%, had been in the same school system of the province for at least the last five years. This suggests that most would have been strongly influenced by the same community forces over an important time of their lives when career aspirations were being formed and decisions were being made.

Ethnicity

When asked if they belonged to one of the groups listed in Table 3.5, only 150 (2% of the students) checked off one of the categories. Half of these (75) were immigrants whose first language was English.

Table 3.5
Ethnic grouping
(N=7390)

Group	Freq.	Percent
Innu	10	0.1
Inuit	27	0.4
Conne River Indian	10	0.1
Immigrant, first lang. English	75	1.0
Immigrant, first lang. not English	28	0.4
No response	7240	98.0

The very small percentage of people in these various ethnic groups is not surprising, since according to the 1986 Canada Census, the population of Newfoundland is comprised mainly of people of British origin who are not recent immigrants.

Home Living Situation

As would be expected, the majority (6409 or 87.3%) of the students lived at home with both of their parents most of the time; while 8.2% lived at home with their mother, 1.9% lived at home with their father, and 2.4% lived with relatives or friends. A very small percentage (0.2) lived alone.

Students with Siblings

Most students (93%) had at least one brother or sister, and, as can be seen in Table 3.6, a large percentage (69.3%) had one, two or three siblings. When asked their age compared to their brothers and sisters, student responses revealed that 34.6% were the oldest, 34.1% were the youngest, and 31.3% were in between.

The typical (i.e. median) family size was 2.12 children, although there were still some large families. About 24% of the Level III students said that they came from families with four or more children. Birth order and family size are much discussed issues, with possible impact on the ability of families to pay for education; the need to make choices about which children proceed to post-secondary education; and other less tangible factors such as the aspirations of the children. Other factors to consider are the declining birth and fertility rates in Newfoundland as reported in the recent publication *Towards, 2000* (Press, 1990). These, coupled with the fact that the trend is for women to have fewer children (smaller families), sibling competition for family support is likely to decline in future years.

Table 3.6
Number of siblings
(N=7390)

Number of siblings	Freq.	Percent
0	519	7.0
1	1933	26.2
2	2013	27.2
3	1176	15.9
4	644	8.7
5	359	4.9
6	221	3.0
7	142	1.9
8	107	1.4
9	89	1.2
10+	187	2.5

Mean=2.7 Medium=2.12 Mode=2.0

State of Health

When asked how they would describe their general state of health, 71.5% indicated that they had always been healthy, and 24.9% said that they were well most of the time. Few (3.0%), had had a long term or serious illness.

In answer to another question asking if they have a disability, only 336 or 4.5% of the total number of 7390 students gave a response. The disabilities that they described are shown in Table 3.7. The most

Table 3.7
Student disabilities
(N=336)

Disability	Freq.	Percent
Visual handicap	176	49.3
Medical condition	97	27.2
Partially or Completely deaf	46	12.9
Motor disability	19	5.3
Learning disability	14	3.9
Confined to a wheelchair	5	1.4

frequently cited was a visual handicap, however, the severity of this or the other disabilities was not assessed. Also, under the "other" category of this question, the responses could, and were, typically interpreted as medical condition (97 students) and learning disability (14 students). Caution has to be exercised in interpreting this information as there is no confirmation of the extent of the disabilities that were reported. Furthermore, there are likely a number of Level III students who might not see their conditions as particularly disabling, even though others might do so.

It was of some interest that only 11 students described themselves as having multiple disabilities. The categories were very broad so that some students, for example those saying that they had a motor disability, might otherwise have been described as having multiple disabilities.

TIME UTILIZATION

Time Spent Weekends and After School

Students were asked to indicate (yes or no) if they spent their weekends and evenings participating in a number of specified activities during the 1988-89 school year. The results are shown in Table 3.8. As would be expected, over 90% of all students spent some time watching television, doing homework, and engaged in the "other" category of activities such as dating and hanging out. With respect to work, only about 18% said they were self-employed, and 22% worked for the family or family business, while 45% did some kind of part-time work not related to any family business.

The actual number of students engaged in after-school work activity, however, is lower than suggested by their percentages of work in the various categories, although it is notable that it was the norm to be employed in some fashion. Actually, only 34.2% of the Level III students surveyed said that they were not employed in some way after school. About 48% of all students reported work in one category, while the remaining 17.6% said that they were employed in two or more categories.

Most students did some form of work for money during the school year. The median number of hours worked at all categories by the 4865 who said that they worked was 9.03 hours a week. This is a matter deserving further study. Work experience is considered to be an important component of the development of young people, and these data suggest that most Level III students are getting it. Others, however, have

Table 3.8
Extent of involvement in after school and weekend activities
(N=7390)

Activity	Percent not involved	Number involved	Time of weekly involvement (hours)[1] Median	90th percentile
Work				
Work for family business (e.g. working in odd jobs/store)	77.4	1668	7.4	20.4
Part-time work for non-family business (e.g. paper route, baby sitting)	54.3	3376	8.9	22.9
Self-employed (e.g. cutting lawns, snow shovelling)	81.5	1366	4.2	13.3
Total work	34.2	4865	9.0	24.3
Other				
School and community activities (e.g. athletics, cadets, clubs)	46.4	3958	4.9	13.2
Hobbies and interests (e.g. sewing, touting, street hockey)	22.5	5729	5.7	14.3
Watching television	6.4	6897	9.5	28.8
Homework	6.4	6915	7.9	16.6
Other (e.g. relaxing, dating, hanging out)	3.2	7155	15.0	44.6

[1]Based on the number actually involved in the activity.

said that working detracts from the academic effort of students. In this study, 90% of those working reported working 24.3 hours or more per week, a substantial burden on their time, if the reports are true. The

Table 3.9
Number of hours worked after school
(N=4865)

Number of hours worked	Freq.	Percent
0	350	7.2
>0-5	1022	21.0
>5-10	1206	24.8
>10-15	789	16.2
>15-20	665	13.7
>20-25	293	6.0
>25-30	185	3.8
>30-35	86	1.8
>35-40	75	1.5
>40-45	27	0.6
>45-50	37	0.8
Over 50	38	0.8
Varies	92	1.9

actual range of hours worked varied tremendously, from no hours per week to over 50 (see Table 3.9). More information about the nature of their work is required. It would be interesting to know how students view this experience, and the impact that it has on their career decision making. Teachers should be interested in the contrast between time reported spent on homework, and time spent viewing television and other activities.

The median number of hours spent on the various after school activities varies from 4.2 hours per week for the self-employment category, to 15.0 for the "other" category (see Table 3.8). This much higher median for other activities is not surprising given that such things as relaxing, dating and hanging out were given as examples for this in the questionnaire. The next highest median was 9.5 hours for watching television, followed by

next highest median was 9.5 hours for watching television, followed by 9.0 hours on school and community activities. Time spent on hobbies and interests was surprisingly low with a median of 5.7 hours.

Participation in Summer Camps and Programs

About 25% (1876) of the students had participated in special summer camps (or programs) since they had started high school. The type of camps listed by the students are shown in Table 3.10. The most popular camps were those associated with clubs (27.5%), sports (27.1%), and the military (24.8%).

Table 3.10
Special summer camps & programs attended
(N=1876)

Type of camp	Freq.	Percent
Club (e.g. guides, church)	515	27.5
Sports (e.g. basketball, hockey)	510	27.1
Military	465	24.8
Special Interest (e.g. music, language)	357	19.0
Health (e.g. candlelighter, diabetic)	18	1.0
Not specified	269	14.3

Note: Students could list more than one type of camp

It is also interesting to note that a further examination of the information on camps reveals that 73% of the participants were involved with one type of camp; while much smaller percentages of students participated in two types of camps (12%) or three types (1%). This was due perhaps to particular interests of the students and/or availability of the summer camps.

Absence, Lateness, Suspension

As can be seen in Table 3.11, most students (65.9%), had reported ten or fewer days absence from school during the 1988-89 school year, and about half that number were absent for five days or less. The number with more than 20 days absence was comparatively small, being only 10.8%. Reasons for such extensive absence were not sought in the questionnaire, and also were not related to categories of health (illness) given by students.

Table 3.11
Days absent from school
(N=7390)

Number of days	Freq.	Percent
0	529	7.2
1-5	2289	31.0
6-10	2045	27.7
11-15	1005	13.6
16-20	681	9.2
21-25	269	3.6
26-30	250	3.4
31-35	66	0.9
36-40	68	0.9
Over 40	90	1.2
Don't Know	98	1.3

Mean=11.3 Median=7.9 Mode=11.0

Over all, the data may underestimate the absenteeism rate since those students with high absentee rates were more likely not to have been in school at survey time. There is also the possibility that students may have a tendency to underestimate their attendance at school.

With respect to the number of times students were late for school, most (47.7%), indicated none for the year; and an additional 37.2% were only late between one and five times (see Table 3.12).

Table 3.12
Days late for school
(N=7390)

Number of days	Freq.	Percent
0	3527	47.7
1-5	2750	37.2
6-10	515	7.0
11-15	159	2.2
16-20	145	2.0
21-25	47	0.6
26-30	43	0.6
31-35	12	0.2
36-40	28	0.4
Over 40	51	0.7
Don't know/not coded	113	1.5

Mean=3.19 Median=0.81 Mode=0

When asked if they were ever suspended from school during the year, only 220 students (3% of the sample) said yes. This low figure is not surprising since suspension is typically a last resort type of punishment incurred by few students in any given school year.

Grades Repeated

Approximately 17% or 1286 students stated that they had repeated at least one in grade in school. Of these, 1015 had repeated one grade, 241 two grades, and 30 had repeated three or more grades. Table 3.13 shows which grades were repeated most frequently. As with the concurrent study on early school leavers in the province, the most frequently repeated grades were in the junior high school years (grades 7, 8, and 9) which accounted for 46.9% of the repeaters.

Table 3.13
Grades repeated in school

Grade	Freq. (N=1286)	Percent	Percent of sample (N=7390)
1	115	8.9	1.6
2	111	8.6	1.5
3	152	11.8	2.1
4	147	11.4	2.0
5	111	8.6	1.5
6	109	8.5	1.5
7	225	17.5	3.0
8	196	15.2	2.7
9	183	14.2	2.5
Level I	58	4.5	0.8
Level II	44	3.4	0.6
Level III	89	6.9	1.2

Note: Up to 3 repeated grades recorded.

Dropping Out of School Decisions

Most students 5334 (73.1%) had never thought of dropping out of school, while 1874 (25.7%) had thought about it, and 84 (1.2%) had actually

Table 3.14
Reasons for staying in (or returning to) school

Reason	Freq. (N=1958)	Percent (N=1958)	Percent of sample (N=7390)
Personal factors (e.g. important to please parents)	818	41.8	11.1
Education related (e.g. needed ed.\last school year)	692	35.3	9.4
Career related (e.g. to get suitable job)	221	11.3	3.0
No real response (e.g. had to\it crossed my mind)	168	8.6	2.3
Parental involvement (e.g. made student return)	121	6.2	1.6
No response	464	23.7	6.3

Note: Up to 2 reasons coded and recorded.

dropped out at some point. When those who had thought about it, and those who had actually dropped out were asked why they stayed in school (or returned in the case of the dropouts), the reasons most often given (see Table 3.14) were categorized as personal factors (41.8%), and education related (35.3%). Career-related reasons were given by 11.3% of the students. It is also interesting to note that parental involvement was the least cited reason. However, parents were listed most frequently by students when they were asked if there was anyone with whom they talked

and who had helped in their decision to go back to, or stay in, school. This influence of parents is shown clearly in Table 3.15 under the amount of help categories. After mothers and fathers, friends were the next highest category of help.

The number of persons in their Level III year who had thought about dropping out at some point is very large, and a matter of some concern. It is known that fairly large numbers do not actually graduate, and it may be that they will be found among the group who have thought of dropping out. A substantial number apparently have stayed because of a commitment to education and career, but large numbers have remained in school largely for social reasons or to preserve peace at home.

It is also interestingly that only 825 or 42.3% of those considering early leaving had discussed it with someone. This is consistent with the

Table 3.15
Persons helping with decision to stay in school
(N=825)

Person	Amount of help (%)			
	A lot	A little	Not at all	No response
Mother	60.1	22.7	8.8	8.7
Father	47.5	22.8	14.7	15.0
Friends	46.7	33.8	8.8	10.7
Teacher/principal	17.1	19.4	37.3	26.2
School counsellor	11.5	13.8	44.5	30.2
Other	18.1	16.8	32.2	32.8

Note: Row totals = 100%.

Only 825 of the 1958 students who had dropped out or thought of dropping out responded to this question.

findings from early leavers and is remarkable because so few people seek help with the decision. It is also remarkable that when they do seek help, by and large they regard their parents as being most helpful. The rate of nonresponse to the question about helpfulness is highest with respect to teachers and counselors. As it may be assumed that teachers are available in all (cases even though this is not the case with counselors), persons who did not respond to this question did so either because they had not sought out teachers and counselors, or perhaps because they had, but had not found them helpful. This is all the more interesting, because in this case, the help received in the consultation would probably have resulted in a decision to stay in school. In general, parents and friends were perceived to be most helpful.

Math Program Taken

When asked which of the three math programs they took in Level III, 4573 (62.1%) of the students indicated academic math, 1551 (21.1%) the basic/business math, and 1237 (16.8%) the honours (advanced) math. These proportions are similar to those reported by the Department of Education (Education Statistics, 1989, 1990), and reflect an increase from 11.3% of those taking the advanced math the previous school year (1989).

Career Education Course

Less than half of the students (2822 or 38%) indicated that they had taken high school Career Education 3101 course. Of these, 1037 said it was helpful, and 709 said it was very helpful. The remaining students indicated that it was either of little help (796), or that it was of no help to them (280) in making plans for their future career.

Graduation Expectations

In answer to the question "do you expect to fulfil the requirements for graduation from Level III and receive a diploma this year," 6612 (89.5%) of the students said yes, 707 (9.6%) said no, and small number (71) did not respond. Assuming that all of the students who expected to graduate had taken sufficient courses to be eligible for graduation, then the perceived number (percentage) expecting to graduate is slightly higher than for the previous three years (Department of Education Statistics, 1989).

A breakdown of the plans of the small number (707) who did not expect to graduate that year (1989) is shown in Table 3.16. It reveals that one third (32.5%) of those students planned to return to high school and that an additional 17.7% indicated they would likely continue their education. Also, the plans of 27.7% of the students involved working the following year.

Of the 230 planning to return to high school, approximately 83% would be 18 years or older by the time the next school year (1989-90) started. Also, these 230 students represent only 3.1% of the Level III students surveyed and are a much lower percentage than is typical of the size of the group that returns to high school within the province for a fourth year. This number is usually closer to 15% of the total Level III school population.

These data are interesting in a number of ways and carry a number of implications. Already noted is the difference in the proportion planning to return to high school the following year (at the end of the present school year), and the proportion of the population that actually does return. The total number anticipating that they will not graduate (9.6%) is also an important consideration. We do not have any data at this time that describes their actual progress through the school system. However, this is roughly only half of the total that normally does return, suggesting that a fair number of people are approaching the public exam period

believing that they will succeed, even though they do not. This assumes, of course, that they have had accurate feedback from the schools to this point and that their progress during the year thus far has been satisfactory. A minimum of 6% of Level III students would fall into this category, if these data are accurate. If this is adjusted to account for those who do not expect to complete this year or return to high school the following year (5.9%), then almost 12% of all Level III students are in this situation. An earlier report has suggested that these people represent a very high risk group for early school leaving.

Table 3.16
Next year's plans for those students not expecting to graduate this year
(N=707)

Plan	Freq.	Percent
To return to high school in September	230	32.5
Definitely plan to go to work	107	15.1
To continue my education	92	13.0
Like to continue ed., but may have to work	89	12.6
To take the year off	61	8.6
Probably continue ed., but would rather work	33	4.7
Don't have a plan	53	7.5
No response	42	5.9

SUMMARY

The Level III students responding to the questionnaire were typically (as to be expected) 17 to 18 years old, were born in Newfoundland and Labrador, had lived in their present community for over 10 years, attended the local school system, lived with their parents, had at least one brother or sister, and were in good health. They were not a member of any Native group, and typically they did not have any kind of disability. Most spent at least 20 hours per week, after school and on weekends, on typical teenager activities such as hobbies watching television, homework, and school/community activities.

Two-thirds of the students had had work experience of some kind while in school. The effects of this are difficult to determine. For some it may have been a distraction from school work, for others an additional enriching experience. Certainly for all students, it was a labour market experience, and likely to have had some impact on career decision making as well as exposure to basic work/employment (as opposed to school) characteristics.

Almost all of the students expected to graduate from high school that year (1989), and the majority had taken the regular academic math program. In terms of school attendance, most were absent for 10 days or less in the school year, and were late for school less than six times in the year. Few had been suspended from school at any time, but a small number had repeated grades in school, and over one-quarter of the students had contemplated dropping out. The small number of students that had dropped out (or those who had considered it) returned primarily for personal or educational reasons. If they were helped in their decision to do this, the source of the help was their parents or friends, but not school personnel.

A small number of students thought that they would not graduate the year of the survey, but only one-third of these were planning to return the following year to finish. The number planning to return at the time of the survey was small relative to the number who actually return for an additional year. This suggests that end-of-year problems are a major factor in the Level IV phenomenon.

SECTION FOUR

VOCATIONAL ASPIRATIONS

Aspirations were considered from the perspectives of career choice, career planning, and future lifestyle. Responses to the questions addressing these areas help to give us some insight into the possible direction of career development as the student completes Level III in high school.

A person's aspirations need to be considered as an expression of a desired life-style. Career and work, at least the mainstream view of career and work, are possible, but not necessary, aspects of a person's aspirations. Aspirations focus the transitional process. They must be considered if any attempts are made to intervene in this process in order to achieve societal goals. Aspirations can be long-term or short-term. Also, they can be specific or vague. Nevertheless, they provide a basis or focus for vocational decision making and, in simplistic terms, they are an expression of the goals of the individual, and provide direction in the work transition process.

CAREER CHOICE

A summary of the responses resulting from asking students which career they would like to enter in the future is shown in Table 4.1. Most students (82.3%) gave one career choice, while 11.4% gave two choices

and 1.2% gave three choices. Only a small number (5.0%) did not list any choice, or simply put "didn't know."

Table 4.1
Summary of career choice responses
(N = 7390)

Type of response	Freq.	Percent
One career choice given	6089	82.3
Two career choices given	846	11.4
Three career choices given	86	1.2
Don't know	160	2.2
No response	209	2.8

When the student career choices are organized using the Canadian Classification and Dictionary of Occupations (CCDO) "major groups" codes, approximately 80% of the students choices were distributed among the categories of medicine and health (18.2%), service (15.3%), nautical sciences, engineering, and math (13.4%), social services (10.3%), teaching (10.2%), and managerial and administrative occupations (9.2%). The numbers in other occupational categories varied widely (see Table 4.2) from 6.8% in clerical jobs, to less than 1% in fishing and mining.

When these career choices were examined by gender (also shown in Table 4.2), there were some significant differences in a number of the career categories. Many more females (1096) than males (248) listed medicine and health careers, an occupational category which includes traditional female occupations such as nursing and nursing assistant. Other categories with a significantly high portion of females were the social sciences, teaching, and clerical occupations. The latter was also no surprise, since it contains the various secretarial (again traditionally female) jobs.

Table 4.2
Future career choice

Occupational group	All students (N=7390)		Male (N=3519)		Female (N=3871)	
	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent
Medicine & health	1344	18.2	248	7.0	1096	28.3
Service	1134	15.3	593	16.9	541	14.0
Nautical science, engineering, math	989	13.4	760	21.6	229	5.9
Social services & related	762	10.3	176	5.0	586	15.1
Teaching & related	753	10.2	190	5.4	563	14.5
Managerial & administrative	680	9.2	336	9.5	344	8.9
Clerical & related	505	6.8	59	1.7	446	11.5
Artistic, literary, perform. arts	408	5.5	164	4.7	244	6.3
Product fabricating, assembly, repair	400	5.4	376	10.7	24	0.6
Transportation, equipment, & operating	288	3.9	242	6.9	46	1.2
Construction, trades, & occup.	284	3.8	277	7.9	7	0.2
Forestry & logging	127	1.7	111	3.2	16	0.4
Sales	76	1.0	39	1.1	37	1.0
Machine & related	74	1.0	72	2.0	2	--
Sports & recreation	42	0.6	36	1.0	6	0.2
Religion	28	0.4	11	0.3	17	0.4
Fishing & trapping	25	0.3	23	0.7	2	--
Mining, oil, & gas	6	—	6	0.2	0	--
Other	39	0.5	28	0.8	11	0.3
Don't know	153	2.1	71	2.0	82	2.1
No response	209	2.8	112	3.2	97	2.5

Note: Based on CCDO Titles
Up to 3 responses coded & recorded

The occupational categories with a significantly higher number of males were: nautical sciences, engineering, and math; product fabrication, assembly and repair; transportation equipment and operating; and construction trades. All of these are occupational areas which have typically been male dominant. There was also a slightly higher male choice of the service occupations which include such things as the armed forces, police, cooks, barbers and travel.

What was perhaps most noticeable was the lack of interest in some of the more traditional Newfoundland occupations related to the primary resource areas of forestry and logging (1.7%), fishing (0.3%), and mining, oil, and gas (less than 0.1%). Given economic fluctuations and the adverse publicity these areas have received over the past few years combined with an overall growth in the service section (the second highest choice of students), perhaps it is not surprising that students are not aspiring to occupations in these traditional resource areas.

The choices made by the students reflect the current trend in job creation towards service industries. The gender differences observed are notable in several ways. First, traditional gender-related occupational choices were still very much in evidence, despite some trends toward greater female participation in the traditionally male bastions of construction, transportation, and product fabrication. In addition, there appeared to be an avoidance of female choice in the areas of engineering and math, even though there are some reports that the educational profiles of females are superior to males in these areas in high school, at the present time. Another item of interest was the lower level of choice of females in the service and sales areas, suggesting that more males were planning careers in these areas. It is difficult to know if this represents a change on the part of the females, or males, as this is one area of expansion in the labour market, which, given the current economic climate, might appear attractive to either gender.

Training Levels of Career Choices

Another way to view the career aspirations of Level III youth is is to look at the amount of training that planned careers will require. In order to do

this, the specific vocational preparation (SVP) time was compiled from the CCDO categories which were coded for the selected career paths. It should be noted that the SVP does not necessarily entail formal post-secondary training. It can be a combination of formal training, on-the-job training and experience and the actual weighting of each will vary depending on the nature of the work. However, it is generally the case that lower SVP levels entail a heavier weighting of on-the-job training and experience than do higher SVP levels, which are weighted more toward formal post-secondary training.

The findings in this study should be interpreted within the context of a labour market that is rapidly shifting toward employment that requires at least one to two years of post-secondary training. The Economic council of Canada has said recently that by the year 2000, 90% of all new jobs created in Canada will fall into this category. The career paths selected by Newfoundland youth reflect this trend. Only 16.4% indicated interest in careers having at maximum one year specific vocational preparation. The remainder opted for careers requiring more (See Table 4.3). There was also a general trend for males to name careers requiring longer periods of SVP than did females.

Influence on Career Choice

Students were asked how they had choosen the particular careers they cited. The responses were open ended, so the reasons given by the students were in their own words. They had to be grouped and coded for presentation here. Responses to the question give insight into the way that Level III students think about the matter of choosing a career.

There were 9583 reasons given by 5703 people. Three hundred and seventy nine (5.0%) people did not make a career selection. Seventeen point eight percent did not offer any reason for the choices that they had indicated, 48.9% gave one reason for the choice that they made, while another 22.9% gave two reasons. As can be seen in Table 4.4, the remaining 5.4% gave three reasons. Personal interest was the dominant

Table 4.3
Training levels of selected career paths

Training Level	Male (N=3519)		Female (N=3871)		All students (N=7390)		Cum. Percent (N=7020)
	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent	
No career chosen	186	5.3	184	4.8	370	5.0	---
Short demonstration only	32	0.9	10	0.3	42	0.6	0.60
More than short demonstration to thirty days	9	0.3	2	0.1	11	0.1	0.75
Over 30 days to three months	11	0.3	62	1.6	73	1.0	1.79
Over three months to six months	149	4.2	171	4.4	320	4.3	6.35
Over six months to one year	385	10.9	323	8.3	708	9.6	16.44
Over one year to two years	372	10.6	824	21.3	1196	16.2	33.53
Over two years to four years	1424	40.5	1465	37.8	2889	39.1	74.69
Over four years to ten years	949	27.0	809	20.9	1758	23.8	99.73
Over 10 years	2	0.1	21	0.5	23	0.3	100.00

Note: Training level is based on specific vocational preparation (SPV) levels as outlined in the Canadian Classfication and Dictionary of Occupations.

Table 4.4
What influenced student career choice
(N=7390)

Influence categories	Freq.	Percent
Personal interest	4871	65.9
Lack of/strength in school subjects	715	9.7
Money	502	6.8
Family (eg. business owned by)	400	5.4
Work opportunity	352	4.8
Past experience	325	4.4
Friends	214	2.9
School personnel involvement	167	2.3
Outside visitors from institutions	93	1.3
Media	72	1.0
Other	318	4.3
Not answering questions as asked	73	1.0
No response/don't know	1318	17.8
No career choosen	369	5.4

Note: Up to 3 responses coded.

reason given, cited by over 84% of those giving only one reason for their choice, and by over 88% of those giving two reasons. It is evident that interest was salient, even for those with more complex responses to the question, and that understanding the source of the interest cited in the response is essential to understanding more about how careers are chosen. Quite evidently, interest can develop out of experience in school, in the family and community, even though these sources were not cited very

frequently. It is informative to note that among the other reasons actually cited, family and friends appeared as reasons almost five times as frequently as did school personnel, but overall, still only accounted for 8.3% of the reasons. In the coding process, the category "interest" was interpreted very broadly and included general statements of interest in the work, as well as more specific expresion of interest in aspects of the work, such as the "ability to travel" and so forth. The influences of work opportunity, length of training and education, which would indicate practical thinking about career choices, were surprisingly absent from the responses. Only a few students gave responses in these areas.

Table 4.5
Businesses students thought of starting on their own
(N=2488)

Business category	Freq.	Percent
Service (other than hospitality)	1150	46.2
Retail	553	22.2
Hospitality/food/lodging/tourism	219	8.8
Construction	178	7.2
Arts/crafts	72	2.9
Agriculture/husbandry	30	1.2
Manufacturing/fabrication	26	1.0
Communications	10	0.6
Mining/oil (primary)	6	0.2
Woods (primary)	5	0.2
Fishing (primary)	5	0.2
Other (not categorized)	25	1.0
Not sure/don't know	242	9.7
No response	95	3.8

Note: Up to 3 responses recorded

Own Business

In response to the question "have you thought of starting a business in the future," 2488 or 33.7% of the students said "yes." Of these, the larger number (1430) were males. The type of businesses the students gave are categorized in Table 4.5. Most (68.4%) listed service or retail business areas. Very few (less than 1%) listed businesses in mining, woods or fishing. About 10% did not know what kind of business they might like to start.

Table 4.6
What influenced student choice of business
(N=2488)

Influence categories	Freq.	Percent
Personal interest	1225	49.2
Money	180	7.2
Family	170	6.8
Experience	115	4.6
Work opportunity	104	4.2
Lack of/strength in school subjects	64	2.6
Other	58	2.3
Friends	54	2.2
School personnel involvement	22	0.9
Outside visitors from institutions	12	0.5
Media	12	0.5
Requirements such as education, time	11	0.4
Not answering question as asked	30	1.2
No response	896	36.0

Note: Up to 3 responses coded

When we look at the reasons, given by students, relating to how they would choose a particular business, the most common influence cited was again that of personal interest (49.2%). Other reasons for their choice are shown in Table 4.6. Only 7.2% gave money as a reason for starting a business, and even fewer (4.2%) gave work opportunity as a reason.

The amount of money students considered they might need to start a business is shown in Table 4.7. The amounts varied widely, but the largest number of students (38.6%) said they would need over $20,000. A similar portion of students also indicated they did not know how much they needed. Such a response is probably realistic for those students who had not had a chance to do any indepth planning (including costing) related to starting a business.

Table 4.7
Estimated amount of money to start business
(N=2488)

Amount of money ($)	Freq.	Percent
0-99.	18	0.7
100.-499.	15	0.6
500.-999.	5	0.2
1,000.-4,999.	71	2.9
5,000.-9,999.	94	3.8
10,000.-19,999.	200	8.0
over 20,000.	961	38.6
Depends	23	0.9
Don't know	941	37.8
No response	160	6.4

IMMEDIATE CAREER PLANS

Post-secondary Education

A perennial finding of studies such as this is that very large numbers of students at this stage say that they intend to continue their education; however, not nearly as many actually follow through on these intentions. Given the changing nature of the job market, these intentions are realistic, so it is important to try and understand why many students do not realize their aspirations. Most students (88.6%) said that they planned to attend a post-secondary institution after they finished their education at high school (see Table 4.8). Further analysis, by gender, revealed that a slightly higher portion of females (91.1%) compared to males (85.8%) planned to do this. However, it should be noted with respect to both of these groups that such plans might not necessarily mean attending a post-secondary institution immediately following high school. It could, in fact, indicate a longer range career plan for some students. This becomes evident when the plans are given for the year after high school (see Table 4.19, page 75). Only 55% of students indicated that they definitely planned to continue their education or training the following year.

Table 4.8
Plans to attend post-secondary institutions by gender

	All students (N=7390)	Male (%) (N=3519)	Female (%) (N=3871)
Yes	88.6	85.8	91.1
No	9.5	12.5	6.9
Undecided	0.4	0.6	0.5
No response	1.4	1.5	1.5

Most students (85%) were aware that the careers they had chosen required some kind of education or training, and, as can also be seen in Table 4.9, most of these students planned to attend some kind of post-

Table 4.9
Training, education and post-secondary plans
(N=7390)

Will chosen career/business require training/education?		Plan to attend post-secondary institution		
	Percent	Yes (%)	No (%)	No response/ undecided (%)
1. Don't know	12.5	75.4	21.4	3.1
2. On-the-job training	11.2	71.2	26.4	2.4
3. Required to attend school	68.6	94.6	4.6	0.9
4. Both 2 & 3	5.1	90.4	8.0	1.6
No Response	2.6			

secondary institution. A further 12.5% of the students indicated that they did not know whether education or training would be required for their careers, yet 75.4% of that group said they planned to attend a post-secondary institution. It should also be noted that only a very small percentage of the students who realized that further education was needed for their chosen career or business did not plan to attend a post-secondary institution. The percentage of those not knowing that further education and training would be required yet who planned further school (75.4%) was only marginally higher than the number planning more school (71.2%) even though they felt that it would not be required.

It is very instructive to compare the perception about education against the SVP levels of planned careers (See Table 4.10). Assuming that SVP levels greater than six months would almost always involve some post-secondary training, 11.0% of our sample either said they did not know if

post-secondary education would be required for their chosen career, or did not respond to the question. A further 9.7% of the sample said their chosen career would require on-the-job training only. In all, about 20% of the Level III students responding did not appear to have a clear idea of the nature of training required for the career that they had chosen.

Those students who indicated that they planned to attend a post-secondary institution after finishing their education at high school were asked (open-ended question) which institution they would attend, as well as which program they would take (see Tables 4.11 and 4.14). Many students 4518, or 69.0%, gave only one choice, while 6.6% listed two institutional choices. The largest portion of students (2312, or 35.3%) gave a campus of Memorial University usually as a first, but sometimes as a second, choice. Another 27.5% of choices were distributed among the other public post-secondary institutions in the province. Some students (2.8%) also listed the private colleges in Newfoundland, and others (12.1%) indicated out-of-province institutions as their choice. There were also a fairly large percentage (24.4%) that gave "don't know" or did not respond. This was surprising given that the information was collected only two months prior to the end of the Level III year when it would be expected that most students would have decided where they planned to continue their education. Also, time would be drawing close for application deadlines for many institutions. It should be noted that less than 4% of this group (answering don't know) did not expect to graduate that year. Few students would have delayed their efforts to identify an appropriate post-secondary institution for this reason.

For the most part, those indicating alternative plans to attend more than one institution were planning institutions at the same level, that is, degree-granting, or non-degree granting (see Table 4.12). Only a few, about 1.7% were considering the two levels of institutions as alternatives.

As a comparison, when students were given a list of specific post-secondary institutions and training places and asked to indicate all those that they had given serious thought to attending since starting Level III,

Table 4.10
Perception of education required compared to Specific Vocational Preparation of planned career (N=7390)

Specific Vocational Preparation level	Perception of education required (%)					
	Don't know 1	On-the-job Training 2	Required to attend school 3	Both school and on-the-job training 4	No response 0	Totals
1	0.1	0.1	0.3	---	---	0.6
2	---	0.1	---	---	---	0.1
3	0.1	0.3	0.5	0.1	---	1.0
4	0.9	0.7	2.3	0.3	0.1	4.3
5	1.2	1.5	6.1	0.7	0.1	9.6
6	2.2	1.8	11.1	0.8	0.3	16.2
7	4.4	5.2	26.6	2.3	0.6	39.1
8	1.7	1.2	19.7	0.9	0.4	23.8
9	0.1	---	0.2	---	---	0.3
No response	2.0	0.4	1.7	0.1	0.9	
Totals	12.5	11.2	68.6	5.1	2.6	

Table 4.11
Institutions and training places students planned to attend
(N=6546)

Institutions and training place	Freq.	Percent
Inside province		
Memorial University:		
St. John's	2014	30.8
Corner Brook	263	4.0
Other	35	0.5
Institutes:		
Cabot	656	10.0
Fisher	223	3.4
Marine	196	3.0
Community Colleges:		
Avalon	68	1.0
Eastern	121	1.8
Western	209	3.2
Central	139	2.1
Labrador	17	0.3
Unspecified	179	2.7
Private Colleges:	186	3.0
Nursing Schools:	211	3.3
Company	22	0.6
Outside province		
Named Institution	740	11.3
Unnamed Institution	52	0.8
	33	0.5
Other		
Unspecified University	140	2.1
Armed Forces	37	0.6
Other	16	0.2
No Response/don't know	1595	24.4

Notes: Up to 2 choices coded and recorded, 4518 students gave one choice 433 students gave two choices, 207 of which named an institution outside the province.

Table 4.12
Comparison of first and second choice of students by type of institution they planned to attend (N=7390)

First choice institution	Second choice institution							
	None named		Non-university		University		Totals	
	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent
None named	2383	32.2	21	0.3	3	--	2407	32.6
Non-university	1990	26.9	86	1.2	16	0.2	2092	28.3
University	2557	34.6	108	1.5	226	3.1	2891	39.1
Totals	6930	93.8	215	2.9	245	3.3	7390	100.0

Table 4.13
Institutions and training places that students gave serious thought to attending since starting Level III
(N=7390)

Specific institutions & training places	Students	
	Freq.	Percent
Memorial University	3285	44.4
Cabot Institute	1919	26.0
Armed Forces	1605	21.7
Community Colleges	1506	20.4
Marine Institute	916	12.4
Police Academy	896	12.1
Sir Wilfred Grenfell College	790	10.7
Hospital Nursing School	685	9.3
Fisher Technical Institute	653	8.8
Private Career College	575	7.8
Other Institutions:		
In province (named)	25	0.3
In province (unnamed)	111	1.5
Out of province (named)	38	0.5
Out of province (unnamed)	1252	16.9
Not thought of attending any	432	5.8

Note: Students could indicate more than one institution

the number choosing each institution or training place was, as expected, higher (see Table 4.13). Students had obviously considered a number of options while in their Level III year, including institutions outside the province.

With respect to the program choices of students planning post-secondary education, 40.6% chose a university type of program, and 39.9% chose programs at other institutions (see Table 4.14). Thirty different university

Table 4.14
Categories of programs considered by students who planned to attend post-secondary institutions
(N=6546)

Categories	Freq.	Percent
University programs	2656	40.6
Other programs at colleges, institutions, etc.	2612	39.9
Don't know responses	1841	28.1

Note: Up to two choices coded and recorded

programs were named by students, as well as 226 different programs representing the broad spectrum of occupational preparation areas at the various other post-secondary institutions. In terms of the most popular programs listed within the non-university group, nursing and early childhood training were the most popular, and represented the choice of 373 or (15.0%) of all students who planned non-university, post-secondary education (see Table 4.15). It should also be noted that a large number of students (1841 or 28.1%) did not know what program they would take.

Most planning to attend non-degree granting institutions (91.4%) had a program planned as well. This is consistent with the practice in most of these schools, where admission is into a specialized program, rather than into the school. Only 8.6% had not yet planned a program (see Table 4.16). The significance of this depends very much on whether attendance was planned for the coming year (143 of the 179 were in this category).

Table 4.15
Most popular non-university programs considered by students planning to attend post-secondary institutions

Program	Number of students	Percent of all students planning post-sec. ed (N=6546)
Nursing	199	8.0
Early childhood training	174	7.0
Beauty culture	92	3.7
Secretarial science (Administration)	92	3.7
Electrical/electronic technology	76	3.0
Nursing assistant	75	3.0
Accounting	65	2.6
Pre-employ welding	61	2.4
Pre-employ carpentry	61	2.4
Cosmetology	50	2.0
Computer studies	50	2.0
Clerk accounting	50	2.0

Note: Includes all non-university programs given by 50 or more students

A greater proportion of those planning to attend university had not yet proceeded to the point of planning a program (629, or 21.9% of those planning to go, and 21.6% of those planning to attend in the coming year). This is not nearly as serious a matter as not having planned a non-university program. For the most part, the length of university programs is not fixed and many people wait one or more years after admission before making a choice of major program. It is well recognized that career exploration can continue during this time. While deferring career planning is possible for those attending most universities, not much is known about the relationship of this practice to persistence, particularly

Table 4.16
Number and type of program planned by those intending to pursue post-secondary education
(N=6546)

Program category		Number of programs listed: None	One	Two	Totals
University					
	Freq.	629	1950	297	2876
	Percent	21.9	67.8	10.3	43.9
Non-university					
	Freq.	179	1734	162	2075
	Percent	8.6	83.6	7.8	31.7
No Response					
	Freq.	1033	478	84	1595
	Percent	64.8	30.0	5.3	24.4
Totals					
	Freq.	1841	4162	543	6546
	Percent	28.1	63.6	8.3	100.0

in the early phases of the university experience, when the stress of transition is likely to be the greatest.

As can be seen in Table 4.16, a fairly large number of the students, 1595, or 24.4% of those intending to attend post-secondary, had not yet selected the institution that they wanted to attend; and 1210 of these people were likely to want to attend in the coming year. Some of the

1595, about 35.3%, indicated programs that they thought they would like to take, so for them the difficult decision was where to go to school. The remaining 1033, 15.8% of the total planning to attend, had neither school nor program selected. Only a few of these were actually planning to defer continuing to post-secondary in the coming year. It will be important to follow this group carefully in the coming years as a number of hypotheses would explain the apparent lack of planning of this group. Of most interest is the actual committment of these people to attaining post-secondary training.

People Helpful with Plans

In terms of obtaining information and advice, students were asked to indicate how much they had discussed their career plans with specific

Table 4.17
Persons student discussed career plans with

Person	Amount of Discussion (%)		
	A lot	A little	Not at all
Mother/guardian	59.2	35.0	5.8
Father/guardian	47.5	39.7	12.8
Friends	45.4	49.7	4.9
School counsellor	19.2	42.9	37.9
Person in the job	12.8	42.8	44.5
Relatives	13.5	58.1	28.4
Teacher	8.9	43.7	47.4

Note: Row totals = 100%

people. As can be seen in Table 4.17, parents and friends rated highly in terms of "a lot" of discussion, well ahead of school personnel, relatives and persons in the job. In fact, a large portion of the students had had no discussion of their career plans with teachers, school counsellors or people

in the job. When asked which of all these people were the most helpful, students again listed their mother (35.2%), father (31.4%), and friends (23.6%). School counsellors rated fourth in terms of most helpful people in career planning (see Table 4.18).

Table 4.18
Persons most helpful with career plans
(N=6808)

Person	Freq.	Percent
Mother/guardian	2396	35.2
Father/guardian	2140	31.4
Friends	1608	23.6
School counsellor	1391	20.4
Person in job	813	11.9
Relatives	411	6.0
Teacher	336	4.9
Nobody	152	2.2
Other	63	0.9

Notes: Students gave up to 3 responses: 4748 gave one
1616 gave two
444 gave three
"Other" category includes clergy & visitors from institutions

Considering the relative time that the students spend with parents, friends, teachers and counselors, these reports are not surprising. Although parents were rated by most as being the most helpful with planning, school counselors were rated at nearly the same level as friends by a significant number of the students.

It is also interesting to note that 1616 (about 24%) of the students answering the question listed two people who were helpful. Another 444

(6.5%) listed three people. However, the most frequent combinations were those involving parents and friends.

Plans for Next Year

Students were also asked more specifically about their plans for the year after Level III. After being given the statements in Table 4.19, and

Table 4.19
Plans for next year (after Level III) by gender
(N=7390)

	All students (N=7390)		Male (N=3519)	Female (N=3519)
Plans	Freq.	Percent	Percent	Percent
Definitely plan to continue my ed./training	4066	55.0	49.0	60.5
Like to continue my ed./training, but I may have to work	892	12.1	12.2	11.1
Definitely plan to go to work	614	8.3	11.3	5.6
Plan to take the year off	563	7.6	7.8	7.5
Shall probably continue my education/training, but would rather go to work	391	5.3	6.8	3.9
Plan to return to high school in September	355	4.5	4.8	4.3
Don't have a plan	202	2.7	3.5	2.0
No response	327	4.4	4.7	4.1

instructed to pick the one that best described their plans, the largest number of students (55%) indicated that they definitely planned to continue their education/training. An additional 17.4% said they would like to, or probably would continue their education/training. Some students planned to work or take the year off, and a small number (2.7%) did not have any kind of plan.

In terms of gender differences and plans for the following year, a larger portion (60.5%) of the female students compared to 49% of the male group definitely planned to continue their education/training. By contrast, the portion of males who definitely planned to go to work and who probably would continue their education/training, but would rather work, was higher than that of the female group.

Parental Support

Table 4.20 shows the students' perceptions of whether or not their parents (or guardian) agreed or disagreed with their plans for the year following Level III. Now, given that parents, according to students, were the most helpful people in determining their career plans (see Table 4.18), it is not surprising that the amount of agreement with their plans is exceptionally high (over 92%). There was also very little difference between the support of mothers or fathers.

Students were also given the statements in Table 4.21 and asked to indicate which one best described what their mother and their father each thought they (the student) should be doing after finishing high school. As can be seen students considered that both parents strongly supported their continuing with education. Only a small number thought that their parents (4.6% of fathers and 4.3% of mothers) wanted them to start work after finishing high school. Also, a small percentage did not know what their father (7.7%) or mother (3.6%) thought they should be doing after finishing high school.

Table 4.20
Amount of parental agreement with students plans for next year (after Level III)

Student plan	Amount of support			
	Mother		Father	
	Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree
Definitely plan to continue education/training	3890	118	3763	130
Like to continue education/training, but may have to work	746	96	694	96
Definitely plan to go to work	486	89	462	77
Plan to take a year off	411	94	377	92
Shall probably continue education/training, but would rather go to work	315	46	306	42
Plan to return to high school in September	282	27	269	26
No plan	91	26	85	27
No response	267	29	256	29
Total	6488	525	6212	519
Percentages	(92.5%)	(7.5%)	(92.3%)	(7.7%)

Note: Derived from student responses where Agree=Strongly Agree + Agree; and Disagree=Strongly Disagree + Disagree.

Table 4.21
Student opinion of parental support for plans after finishing high school
(N=7390)

Type of support	Mother		Father	
	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent
Definitely would like me to continue education	4430	59.9	4137	56.0
Insists that I continue my education	1378	19.6	1098	14.9
Might like me to continue my education	750	10.1	184	10.6
Thinks I should start to work for pay	321	4.3	341	4.6
Does not care what I do	106	1.4	153	2.1
Wants me to work for the family	40	0.5	158	0.8
Don't know what he/she would like me to do	265	3.6	571	7.7
No response	100	1.4	240	3.4

The interpretation of this information on parental support is confounded somewhat by the non-responsive nature of some of the information from the students. Some answered the question about their next year's plans, but did not answer the one about parental agreement. Other students inconsistently indicated that they had no plans for the coming year. Overall, 8.2% of the females, and 6.1% of the males fell into these categories. When examining the remainder of the responses, two trends can be noticed, even though the actual differences are small. Fathers seem somewhat less supportive of plans to continue education, and a bit more supportive of plans to take a year off. An initial analysis does not suggest that there were important gender differences in these perceptions.

A second trend is in the somewhat higher support that seems to have been perceived for plans to continue education. The highest agreement reported is for definite plans to continue education, with the perceived level of support dropping for plans that include work, and the least support perceived for plans that include neither education or work.

Both of these trends were echoed in a question about the perception that Level III students had of the aspirations their parents had for them. The students felt that their mothers were more likely than their fathers to want them to continue their education, although this was by far the highest priority for both parents, in general. Fathers did not necessarily place more priority on work than did mothers, however. The students either did not know, or did not report their perceptions of their fathers' aspirations as frequently as they reported their mothers' (11.1% compared to 5.0%).

A small number of students reported that their parents did not care what they did after high school. There was a small, but significant difference that was gender related. More males (2.6%) than females (1.6%) believed that their fathers felt this way; and 67.5% of the males, compared to 72.4% of the females, felt that their fathers wanted them to continue their education, but 17.5% of the males, compared to 12.4% of the females reported that their fathers insisted that they continue their education. About the same number, 11%, either made no report, or said that they did not know what their fathers wanted them to do.

In general, more students reported knowing what their mothers wanted them to do, although the males were somewhat less sure than the females (6.6% compared to 3.5%). Fewer people reported that their mothers did not care. Again, more females (82.3%) than males (74.4%) felt their mothers wanted them to go on in their education. As in the case of the fathers, males tended to feel that their mothers would insist on further education more so than females.

Reasons for Not Continuing Educational Training

The education/training plans of some students for the year following high school are not always possible to follow through on. Some possible reasons why plans might change were listed for students to respond to, (plus an "other" category). The results are shown in Table 4.22. Over 900 of the students responding gave two or more reasons. The most frequently cited reason overall related to the student wanting to be self supporting (49.0%), with the next highest reason being lack of money for school. There were also another 28.3% of students who lacked confidence in their ability to continue education. The most frequent combination of two reasons given by students was the need to be self-supporting and the lack of money for school.

Table 4.22
Reasons for not continuing education/training next year (after Level III)
(N=2611)

Reasons	Freq.	Percent
I would like to start supporting myself	1279	49.0
I may not have enough money for school	1168	44.7
Can't decide what program to take	819	31.4
I don't know if I have the ability	740	28.3
I have to go far from home	208	8.0
Academic qualifications inadequate	107	4.1
Other	377	14.4

Note: Students could give more than one reason: 943 gave two; 374 gave three; and 121 gave four or more.

The pattern of responses by gender with respect to students reasons for not continuing their education/training next year did not vary much (see

Table 4.23), except that a larger portion of the females (49.9%), compared to the male group (40.6%), thought that they may not have enough money to continue their education. By contrast, a smaller portion of the females (46.2%), compared to (51.4%) of males, gave the reason as wanting to support themselves.

Table 4.23
Reasons for not continuing education/training next year (after Level III) by gender

Reason	Gender %	
	Male (N=1401)	Female (N=1210)
I would like to start supporting myself	51.4	46.2
I may not have enough money for school	40.6	49.9
Can't decide what program to take	30.4	32.5
I don't know if I have the ability	26.5	30.5
I have to go far from home	8.2	7.7
Academic qualifications inadequate	3.6	4.7
Other	13.1	16.0

Note: Students could give more than one response

When asked to indicate the *one* most important reason, rather than multiple reasons for not continuing their education, the largest portion of students (30.8%) cited lack of money. Being self-supporting was the second highest reason given (see Table 4.24).

An examination of the most important reasons why students said they could not continue their education/training the following year, together with their plans for the following year, reveals that the largest number of

Table 4.24
Most important reason why student may not continue education next year (after Level III)
(N=2354)

Reason	Freq.	Percent
I may not have enough money for school	724	30.8
I would like to start supporting myself	538	22.9
Can't decide what program to take	329	14.0
I don't know if I have the ability	304	12.9
Academic qualification inadequate	124	5.3
Take a break to do other things	84	3.6
I have to go far from home	65	2.8
Other	186	7.9

students (339) thought that they might not have enough money to continue their education/training, and although they would refer to do this, they thought they might have to work. The second largest group of students (193) wanted to start supporting themselves and definitely planned to work next year. These, and other combinations of plans, can be seen in Table 4.25.

Students Planning to Work

There were 1897 students, 25.7% of the total, (see Table 4.26) considering the possibility of going to work the following year, although for many, this was not a definite plan. Considering the time of year, both short-term employment planning and search would be important at this stage of transition. Planning will be discussed at this time, with search considered in a later section.

Table 4.25
Student plans for next year by most important reasons why they may not continue education

Most important reason why may not continue education/training	Plans for next year			
	Plan to take year off	Like to continue education but may have to work	Probably continue education but would rather work	Definitely plan to work
I may not have enough money for school	125	339	79	91
I would like to start supporting myself	105	93	98	193
Can't decide what program to take	91	83	51	46
I don't know if I have the ability	52	89	52	55
Academic qualifications inadequate	10	63	12	12
Take a break to do other things	42	9	13	12
I have to go far from home	20	12	9	14
Other	28	35	13	26

Of the 1897, 812 (42.8%) reported having applied for work at the time of the survey (see Table 4.26). It is very interesting that significantly fewer of the group definitely planning to work had made job applications at the time of the survey than had those who were considering work as an

Table 4.26
Status of job application compared to plans to work next year (N=1897)

Plans for next year	Job application status						Row Total	
	Already applied		Had not applied		No response			
	Freq.	%	Freq	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Would like to continue ed./training, but may have to work	399	44.7	444	49.8	49	5.5	892	47.0
Probably continue ed./training, but rather go to work	174	44.5	202	51.7	15	3.8	391	20.6
Definitely plan to go to work	239	38.9	294	47.9	81	13.2	614	32.4
Column Total	812	42.8	940	49.6	145	7.6	1897	100.0

Note: Row percentages

option to education (38.9% compared to 44.6%). Of the remaining 1085 (57.2% of those considering work), most planned to begin applying after the exams in June (see Table 4.27), although 31.6% said that they would start to apply in May, prior to the beginning of the spring fishery. Again, those stating a preference to work after school showed a tendency to delay their education, perhaps because they were dependent on summer work to make their education possible. Also, 18.2% (112 of 614) of those

definitely planning to work had no plans to apply for work compared to 8.6% (77 of 892) of those who preferred to continue their education.

In all, 1662 (87.6% of those possibly working in the coming year) either had already applied for work (812) or were planning to apply for work (850). Of these, 363 (21.8%) did not actually list jobs that they might apply/did apply for. The remainder listed a total of 2413 jobs for which they planned to apply, an average of 1.86 jobs each. In the current job market, for those seriously contemplating work, this is probably an unrealistically narrow range of job search.

The students listed jobs in a wide variety of occupational groups. However, the jobs were invariably low skilled requiring little training or further education. As can be seen in Table 4.28, the largest group of students (37.7%) listed sales occupations, of which sales clerk was the most common job given. Service occupations were the next largest group (31.6%), with waiter/waitress being the most common job; and clerial occupations (17.0%) was the third most frequently cited group with the job of typist being the most commonly listed. An examination of the remaining choices reveals jobs representing a wide range of occupational groups, however such jobs were, almost without exception, unskilled or semi-skilled jobs that required little or no formal training. A number of students (11.6%) also listed the jobs they anticipated as being classified in the category of "manpower" or "makework."

Of the 1897 persons actively contemplating the possible end of their academic career, 1662 said that they had either begun to apply for work, or intended to begin applying for work in the near future. However, of these, only 1299 actually listed jobs that they might apply for, or for which application had already been made. The temporal extent of the jobs in question is of considerable interest, as these students are, in effect, contemplating the beginning of their adult work committment. The students surveyed were asked to characterize the nature of the jobs that they listed (see Table 4.29). Fully 17.8% of the jobs listed were unclassified as to whether they were seasonal or year-round jobs.

Table 4.27
Time when students considering work next year plan to start appling for jobs (N=1085)

Time of year	Plans for next year: Would like to continue ed./training, but may have to work		Probably continue ed./training, but rather go to work		Definitely plan to go to work		Row Total	
	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent
May	201	40.8	64	29.5	78	20.8	343	31.6
After Exams	139	28.2	63	29.0	113	30.1	315	29.0
July	22	4.5	13	6.0	28	7.5	63	5.8
End of Summer	22	4.5	15	6.9	26	6.9	63	5.8
Other	32	6.5	16	7.4	18	4.8	66	6.1
Won't apply	14	2.8	14	6.5	20	5.3	48	4.4
No response	63	12.8	32	14.7	92	24.5	187	17.2
Column Total	493	45.4	217	20.0	375	34.6	1085	100.0

Note: This group of students had not yet made any job applications, even though work was being considered.
Row percentages shown in table.

Table 4.28

Jobs that students who think they may be working next year would like to or have planed to do (N=1662)

Occupational group	Freq.	Percent	Most cited occupation	Freq.
Sales	627	37.7	Sales clerk	508
Service	525	31.6	Water/waitress	146
Clerical	283	17.0	Typist	197
Manpower/make work	192	11.6	N.A.	---
General labouring	173	10.4	N.A.	---
Processing	156	9.4	Fish cleaner/cutter	114
Construction trades	99	6.0	Carpenter helper	34
Farming/forestry/mining	73	4.4	Farmer labourer/miner	20/22
Product fabricating/assembly	45	2.7	Shipyard labourer	25
Fishing	36	2.2	Fisherman	36
Transport	32	1.9	Truck driver	15
Social services & related	23	1.4	Child care worker	20
Health & medicine	18	1.1	Therapy aide	10
Teaching & related	14	0.8	Day care worker assistant	11
Other	118	7.1	Garbage collector	28
Don't know/don't know	363	21.8		

Note: More than one occupation per respondent recorded.

Table 4.29
Nature of jobs planned or applied for after high school compared to plans to work next year

Plans for next year	Number of subjects	Percent of subjects	Number of jobs	Nature of jobs (%) (N=1662)			
				No response	Seasonal	Year round	Both
Would like to continue ed./training, but may have to work	815	49.0	1251	18.5	45.4	34.0	2.2
Probably continue ed./training but rather go to work	345	20.8	518	16.4	44.0	35.9	3.7
Definitely plan to go to work	502	30.2	644	17.8	31.4	48.6	2.5
Column totals	1662	100.0	2413	17.8	41.4	38.3	2.6

The majority of the remainder, 41.4% of the total, were classified as seasonal by the students, while 38.3% were classified as year-round. The remaining 2.3% of the jobs were classified as both seasonal and year-round. For the most part, the young people in the survey who were at the start of their careers anticipated only seasonal employment. There were plans to apply for about one third (33.2%) of the jobs in person, while another 37.1% of the jobs would be applied for by filling out an application. For 22.6% of the applicants, both approaches would be followed. An application procedure was not described for about 7.1% of the jobs listed (see Table. 4.30).

Table 4.30
Type of application procedure anticipated or used for the jobs planned after high school

	Number of jobs (N=2413)	
Type of application	Freq.	Percent
In person	802	33.2
Filling out application	894	37.1
Both in person and application	546	22.6
No procedure indicated	171	7.1

FUTURE LIFESTYLE

Five to Ten Year Outlook

Looking ahead at long range plans, it appears that most of the students (88.9%) expected to be working in a job or career within five to ten years from the time of the survey. This percentage included those (28.2%) who also expected to combine homemaking and working. Less than 0.5% of the students listed only homemaking (see Table 4.31). Also,

approximately 10% of the students did not seem to have any long-term aspirations in that they indicated they did not know what they would be doing in several years time.

Table 4.31
What students expect to be doing in 5 to 10 years

	All students (%) (N=7390)		Male (%) (N=3519)		Female (%) (N=3871)	
	Freq.	Percent	Freq	Percent	Freq.	Percent
Working in a job or career	4467	60.4	2544	72.3	1923	50.0
Homemaker	30	0.4	7	0.2	23	0.6
Both homemaker & working in a job or career	2073	28.1	506	14.4	1567	40.5
Don't know	785	10.6	445	12.6	340	8.8
No response	35	0.4	17	0.5	18	0.5

A further examination of long range goals by gender reveals some differences in all categories of responses, with the most evident (but expected) difference being in the response which included both homemaking and working in a career: 40.1% of the females checked this category compared to 14.4% of the male students. More of the males (72.6%), compared to 50.0% of the females, checked the category that listed working in a job or career and which excluded homemaking. It also appears that fewer females, 8.85% compared to 12.7% of the males did not know what they would be doing five to ten years in the future.

Overall, the question is difficult to interpret. The issue of homemaking as a career is in transition. Most women do enter the workforce, and the patterns of work for them are changing dramatically. While the larger number of females saying that they expected to be involved as a homemaker was anticipated, it is perhaps worth noting that the 14% of males saying the same thing may be signalling a change in the way that these people view the homemaking role.

It is most significant that virtually no one of either gender expected to be a homemaker as a full-time occupation in five to ten years. For women, plans to marry were related to plans to have a career combined with homemaking. But marriage plans were not associated with plans to forego post-secondary education.

Marriage Plans

Students were asked if their plans included marriage, and, as can be seen in Table 4.32, 62.1% gave a positive response. Also, a larger portion of males (compared to females) said they had no plans for marriage.

Table 4.32
Plans to marry

	Percent					
	Total (N=7390)		Male (N=3519)		Female (N=3871)	
	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent
Yes	4589	62.1	1909	54.2	4589	69.2
No	2723	36.8	1560	44.3	1163	30.0
No response	78	0.9	50	1.4	28	0.7

Over one third of the students gave no response when asked how many years it would be before they planned marriage. For another third, it was a long term plan more than six years away. Only a very small number

(1.9%) planned marriage within two years (see Table 4.33). A breakdown by gender indicates that more females gave a response to this question of marriage than did males, and also a larger percentage of females planned marriage sooner than males.

Table 4.33
Number of years before marriage

Time	Percent		
	All students (N=7390)	Male (N=3519)	Female (N=3871)
Less than 1 year	0.4	0.5	0.4
1 to 2 years	1.5	0.8	2.2
More than 2 to 4 years	9.3	6.5	11.8
More than 4 to 6 years	18.2	14.7	21.4
More than 6 years	33.8	33.3	34.3
No response	36.7	44.1	29.7

Seasonal Work and U.I.

Over half of the students (63.0%) did not expect to be doing seasonal work and collecting unemployment insurance. Only 7.5% expected to be doing this, however, over one third of the students (29.5%) did not know (see Table 4.34). Differences by gender were only slight, in that a smaller portion of the females expected to be doing seasonal work and collecting unemployment.

In general, those definitely planning to continue their education following the survey were much more certain that they would not be collecting UI in five to ten years time. Those planning definitely to work the following year were more likely to anticipate collecting UI, while

Table 4.34
Students expecting to do seasonal work & collect U. I.

	Yes	No	Don't know
All students (N=7319)	7.5	63.0	29.5
By gender			
Male (N=3488)	9.1	60.0	30.9
Female (N=3831)	6.0	65.7	28.3

Note: Row totals=100%

those with no plan for the following year were least likely to know if they would be collecting it. These data suggest that an expectation has been established in young people about the relationship between education and employability. Those making a committment to their education expect to be able to find work.

Expected Earning

In terms of expected earning in their first year of work, the largest percentage (35.8%) simply did not know. Given, amongst other factors, the large number of students that planned to continue their education, this response is not surprising. An almost equal number of students (30.8%) expected to earn over $20,000 in their first year of work. Again, for the majority of those who planned training and/or education after high school, this would not be an unrealistic expectation (see Table 4.35).

Table 4.35
Expected earnings in first year of work
(N = 7224)

Earnings ($)	Frequency	Percent
8,000.-9,000.	363	5.0
10,000.-14,999.	919	12.7
15,000.-19,999.	1126	15.6
Over 20,000.	2227	30.8
Don't know	2589	35.8

SUMMARY

Most students listed a career however many choices were gender stereotyped. There was a very low interest in traditional resource-based occupations although some interest in other areas, for example, science, and administration, could be based on resource-based interests. One difficulty in assessing the potential of the student interest in these areas for the more traditional, resource-based occupations is the state of transition of these industries, especially the fisheries. As these industries change, new occupations will emerge from occupational areas not now associated with the industry, so that while it is true that not many people are presently expressing a high level of interest in these areas, that could very well change as the industries change. In an earlier report, it was found that the early school leavers were still regarding these areas as a potential source of employment, especially in the short term. It will be important to follow the Level III graduates to see if there is an increased reliance on the traditional industries among those who do not pursue further training.

Most students, when asked why they had chosen their careers, said that it was an area that interested them. They did not specify more practical reasons such as the availability of work or training, or the time and cost of training. In comparing the choices of males and females, it was evident that factors other than interest had to be considered, as the choices of the women tended toward occupations requiring shorter periods of training, even though the women cited interest more often as a reason, and more women than men said that they planned post-secondary education.

To the extent that students expressed an interest in business, it was in the service and retail areas. Almost nobody had an aspiration to initiate a fishing venture, or a business in the other primary resource areas.

Most of the sample said that they wanted to attend a post-secondary institution. While this was more true of females than males, there were no significant rural/urban differences at this stage of the analysis. Many anticipated a break in their education, however. Just over half planned to

continue immediately after high school. A number planning to continue in the fall had not yet decided which institutions to make application, or the programs they planned to take.

Since beginning Level III, students had considered many institutions, especially Memorial University and the Cabot Institute. Many had considered out-of-province institutions. A low interest in attendance at the Marine Institute, and the local Community Colleges seemed evident.

Parents and friends were said by the students to be most helpful in career planning. While there was some evidence that the schools were also regarded as being of some help by smaller numbers of students, it is apparent that more assistance should be provided by the schools, given the nature of educational planning required by most of the students.

Most students also said that parents approved and supported their after high school plans. Parents were perceived by Level III students to hold quite high educational aspirations for their future, there was some evidence that parents were somewhat more supportive of plans that included education, compared to plans that were for work alone, or for neither work or education.

Students gave money as the primary reason for not continuing education the following year. Distance from school was not an important consideration. Independence, and a desire to be self-supporting was also an issue, and even though the cost of schooling could be reduced by continuing a dependence on parents, much of the need for money apparently derives from a need for independence. The financial aspects of continuing an education are obviously more complex than this, however, and will be discussed further in another section.

If students were contemplating the possibility of work in the following year, most of the jobs they thought they might get were the expected low-skilled jobs requiring little or no training. Most anticipated making only one or two job applications, and would probably rely primarily on

personal contact to get their jobs, revealing that they tend to have a restricted view of the job market they could access.

With respect to longer-range plans, most students expected to be working in 5 to 10 years, including the 62% who planned marriage in the long term. A few people, however, did not reveal any long-term aspirations for work or homemaking. There was clear evidence that there was a link between aspirations for further education and perceptions of long-term employability.

SECTION FIVE

SELF-CONCEPT

Self-concept is a broad, complex issue, centred around the variety of beliefs people have about themselves. Such beliefs form the basis for individual action. They are based on many factors such as ability to perform academically, personality, social standing, interpersonal skills and a whole host of past experiences. These beliefs will have a widespread influence on feelings and behaviour.

Following this then, it becomes evident that self-concept is intricately connected with many of the decisions that Level III students make, and will, for example, influence how they develop aspirations and job-search skills. Students' perceptions of their ability may determine the types of jobs they apply for, or the types of educational experiences they seek, as well as how they might perceive their futures. Successful and unsuccessful experiences influence and lead to a change in self-concept, for example, in simplistic terms, lack of success in school could lead people to a belief

that they do not have the ability to succeed academically. Overall, students' self-concept will help shape their transition, successful or unsuccessful, into the work and labour market situation.

Within the Level III survey, some of the variables that were examined were associated with the students' self-concept. These variables were related more particularly to academic self-concept and to vocational self-concept.

ACADEMIC SELF-CONCEPT

Self-report is the best way to estimate the self-concept of people, so self-report of school marks were considered to be a good way to estimate academic self-concept. Students were asked to report what they considered to be their average mark so far that year (a few weeks prior to their Level III examinations). Most of them (74.1%) considered that they were doing well in school, and reported marks between 60 and 80 percent. An additional 17.4% said their average mark was over 80 percent (see Table 5.1). Only a very small number (0.6%) considered that they were failing, in that their marks were below 50 percent. Most students (90%) also expected to graduate from high school that year.

There were some interesting differences by gender with respect to marks. A larger percentage of males reported average marks (60 to 70 percent), while more females (49.5%) compared to males (38.1%) considered their marks to be greater than 75 percent. Also many more females reported marks above 80 percent (see Table 5.1). In general, the better reports of academic performance of women accurately parallels their actual superior performance in most areas.

It should be noted, however, that these marks were self-reported by students. The accuracy of such marks should perhaps be compared to actual students marks (as reported on Department of Education records) to obtain a more precise picture of how students perceive their ability. If

Table 5.1
Students' estimated average mark

Average mark of students	All students (N=7390)		Male (N=3519)	Female (N=3871)
	Freq.	Percent	Percent	Percent
40	18	0.2	0.4	0.1
45	29	0.4	0.5	0.3
50	110	1.5	1.9	1.1
55	421	5.7	6.8	4.8
60	923	12.5	14.8	10.4
65	1310	17.7	19.4	16.2
70	1267	17.1	17.3	17.0
75	1190	16.1	14.9	17.2
80	790	10.7	9.3	12.0
Above 80	1272	17.2	13.9	20.3
No response	60	0.8	1.0	0.6

Note: The mean marks for all students was 71.81, and for males 70.29, and for females 73.19.

there is a tendency, it is for students to slightly over-estimate their marks. Overall though, one can say that self-concept of academic ability will roughly parallel their marks.

When students were asked to compare themselves to other students in their grade, the largest number (56.5%) indicated that their marks were fairly good, but not among the best. Another 1675 or 22.7% of students felt their marks ranked among the best. Only a small number of students (2.2%) felt their marks were among the lowest (see Table 5.2). It is also interesting to note that more males than females considered their marks to be "low" or the "lowest." By contrast, 25.3% of the females, compared to 19.7% of males, considered their marks to be among the best. Given

the generally higher averages of 80 and over reported by females, this self assessment is not surprising.

Table 5.2
Student perception of their general achievement level

Achievement level of students	All students (N=7390)		Male (%) (N=3519)	Female (%) (N=3871)
	Freq.	Percent		
Marks among lowest	162	2.2	2.7	1.8
Marks low, but not among the lowest	1301	17.6	20.1	15.3
Marks fairly good, but not among the best	4177	56.5	56.5	56.6
Marks among the best	1675	22.7	19.7	25.3
No response	750	1.0	1.0	1.0

When achievement level is compared to the students' estimate of their average mark, it can be seen, except for a few odd responses, that as marks increased, so did the student perception of their achievement. For example, most of the students who rated their achievement low, estimated their average mark to be in the 50 to 55 percent range; and most of those who considered their marks to be fairly good, estimated them to be in the 65 to 75 percent range (see Table 5.3). This suggests that most students had a consistent estimate of their academic ability.

What was surprising about students perception of their academic ability was how much they considered that they could increase their average mark if they worked at their studies (see Table 5.4). Most students felt that they could do better in school and increase their marks between 5 and 20 percent. The largest portion of students (36.2%) indicated that they

Table 5.3
Achievement level by estimated average mark
(N=7276)

Estimated average mark	Student perception of their achievement			
	Marks among lowest	Marks low, but not lowest	Marks fairly good	Marks best
40	14	4	0	0
45	7	20	--	--
50	32	70	8	--
55	58	268	91	--
60	28	456	433	--
65	7	374	914	7
70	3	82	1125	49
75	2	16	997	166
80	2	1	417	363
Above 80	4	6	168	1084

could increase their average by 10 more marks. Only 5.1% of students said that they could not increase their marks. This was probably an accurate perception by most of this latter group since they estimated their average marks to be 80 percent or more. It should further be noted that the majority of students who felt that they could increase their marks had estimated their averages to be in the 65 to 75 percent range.

However, while there was a tendency for those saying they had the lower marks to predict that they could make the largest gains if they tried, (the correlation between reported average, and predicted gains was -0.47), not everyone who reported a lower average did say that they could do significantly better.

Also, as can be seen in Table 5.4, males and females differed on the extent to which they felt they could achieve more marks. More female students indicated they could improve their marks in the "no more" to "10 more marks" categories. Conversely, a higher number of males felt they could improve their averages by 15 to 20 more marks, suggesting that this group was not, based on its own estimate, working at full potential. Reasons for this are open to speculation, but the basic question is how can students be motivated to achieve better grades in school rather than be content with achieving at less than their full potential?

Table 5.4
How much students though they could increase their marks

Increase amount	Male (N=3519)	Female (N=3871)	All students (N=7390)	
	Percent	Percent	Freq.	Percent
No more marks	3.0	6.9	374	5.1
5 more marks	14.6	24.3	1455	19.7
10 more marks	34.2	38.1	2677	36.2
15 more marks	25.7	18.6	1627	22.0
20 more marks	21.6	11.6	1209	16.3
No response	0.9	0.4	48	0.6

Within the total sample, there were also 680 students (9.2%) who felt that they did not have the ability to pursue further education beyond high school and who had no plans to do so. Yet, upon investigation, it was found that most (80%) of these students estimated their marks to be in the 60 percent and over range; and 83.2% of them said they could improve their marks if they really tried. Based on this, they would appear to have the ability to continue successfully with education, yet they felt they could not.

When asked about their level of concern about a number of typically school-related matters (particularly academic subjects), most students were not concerned about such things as school rules, their social studies or elective courses (see Table 5.5). However, most students had some degree of concern about their study skills, science, math and language arts courses. Of the latter, math was the main concern, to the extent that it caused problems for the largest portion (30.5%) of students. Such school-related concerns might bear further investigation since they may be related in some way to the fact that most students felt that they could improve their school marks.

The level of concern about career was very notable, with 83.1% of those responding saying that they were at least somewhat concerned about those matters. When responses to this question were related to the plans that people had for the coming year, it was found that those who had definite plans, either to work, or go on to post-secondary school, expressed the lowest level of concern about their careers. The level of concern of those with no plans, or those who were undecided, was higher.

There were significant gender differences in the responses to the questions about concerns in school. In general, females were more concerned about the issues addressed than the males were. The men were somewhat more concerned than the women about their language arts courses and about school rules. The women expressed a higher level of concern in all the other areas, but most notably about their science and math courses, and about talking to strangers or adults.

Table 5.5
Student concerns about school-related matters and careers

Student concerns	Level of concern (% responding)								
	Not concerned ("One of my strengths")			Somewhat concerned			Concerned ("Causes problems")		
	Male	Female	All students	Male	Female	All students	Male	Female	All students
Study skills	25.5	25.6	25.5	59.2	56.2	57.7	15.3	18.2	16.8
School rules	56.2	63.8	60.2	35.6	30.1	32.7	8.2	6.1	7.1
Career concerns	19.2	14.9	16.9	45.8	48.8	47.4	35.0	36.3	35.7
Friendships	56.2	55.8	56.0	25.2	24.9	25.1	18.6	19.2	18.9
Talking to strangers/adult	54.2	45.7	49.8	37.8	43.2	40.6	8.0	11.1	9.6
Science	43.2	33.1	37.9	44.6	46.9	45.8	12.3	20.0	16.3
Math	34.9	26.0	30.3	39.8	38.6	39.2	25.3	35.4	30.6
Language arts	33.0	37.1	35.2	51.0	48.5	49.7	16.0	14.3	15.1
Social studies	56.6	51.6	54.0	37.9	40.1	39.1	5.5	8.2	6.9
Elective courses	58.3	60.9	59.7	36.2	34.2	35.2	5.5	4.9	5.2

Note: The percentages are based on a average of 7213 responses for all students, 3429 for males, and 3784 for females.

Learning Style

Another facet of academic self-concept is the view people have of the ways they can learn, given that learning takes place in all contexts and in a variety of ways. As can be seen in Table 5.6, the Level III group of students were split with respect to their preferred learning style. The majority chose either learning by "taking practical courses" (32.1%), "watching other people do it then practising on your own" (29.4%), or "helping someone do the job" (26.0%). The least preferred way, cited by 12.5% of students, was working on their own from books.

Table 5.6
Students preferred learning style

Style of learning	All students (N=7008)		Male (N=3314)	Female (N=3694)
	Freq.	Percent	Percent	Percent
Taking practical courses	2247	32.1	28.8	34.9
Watching other people do it, then practice on your own	2058	29.4	31.2	27.7
Helping someone do the job	1825	26.0	28.6	23.8
On your own through books and through practising	878	12.5	11.4	13.5

There was a definite tendency for the men to state a preference for direct experience in learning, whereas the women were somewhat more balanced, with fewer stating this type of preference. Although in the case of both men and women, the preference for direct experience was marked.

It is interesting that a large number of students preferred a "hands-on" practical way of learning, typically supported by instruction or working

with someone. Such a style, although employed in some high schools (but more particularly in post-secondary vocational learning situations), is not reflected in the way most school curriculum is offered. It is also evident that learners at this stage of their development (nearing the end of their high school education) did not prefer a learning style which reflected independence on the part of the learner.

VOCATIONAL SELF-CONCEPT

The vocational self-concept of high school students is a complex issue which could actually be a study in itself. It deals with the view people have of themselves as workers. In this study, vocational self-concept was limited to gathering information on the students' perception of their ability to do jobs requiring varying levels of training and general ability. Information, as reported earlier in the study, was also gathered on student work experience while they were in school.

Learning Different Jobs

The students were presented with a list of 12 occupations and asked, on a four-point scale, how easy or difficult they would find it to learn the jobs, assuming of course that they wanted to do so.

The jobs were selected on the basis of the specific vocational preparation required (SVP) in terms of length and time of training, and on the general education and development (GED) in terms of the application of reasoning, math and language skills as categorized in the Canadian Classification and Dictionary of Occupations (CCDO). Occupations were chosen that ranged in scope from demanding to undemanding in terms of GED and SVP, and that were familiar to populations in Newfoundland. Also, an attempt was made to include jobs traditionally occupied by each gender when gender neutral occupations could not be found.

The overall ranking of the occupations was examined first based on the students estimated degree of difficulty. Obviously, a number of variables such as student ability, interest, aptitude, and knowledge of training requirements were likely to influence student response to this question. However, the actual order of ranking (see Table 5.7) conformed generally to ranking based on the levels of ability and training required for each occupation. This tended to confirm that, in general, the occupations were known and understood by the students. The occupation of dentist was considered to be the most difficult to learn, followed by naval architect, nurse, electrician and teacher. Occupations such as fish plant worker and store clerk were ranked the least difficult to learn.

Table 5.7
Student estimation of level of difficulty to learn selected occupations

Occupation	Level of difficulty (%)				
	Very easy	Easy	Somewhat difficult	Very difficult	Mean
Dentist	0.1	6.4	37.6	55.0	3.47
Naval architect	1.6	7.4	35.4	55.6	3.45
Nurse	2.1	12.7	49.6	35.5	3.18
Electrician	4.2	20.2	47.4	28.2	3.00
Teacher	7.7	23.3	50.9	18.1	2.79
Store manager	8.27	34.3	49.5	0.85	2.57
Deck hand	20.7	33.9	30.3	15.1	2.40
Typist	27.3	47.9	20.9	3.9	2.01
Truck driver	34.2	43.4	18.7	3.6	1.92
Cook	34.4	46.8	16.4	2.4	1.87
Fish plant worker	47.3	37.2	11.3	4.13	1.72
Store clerk	56.8	37.8	5.2	0.2	1.49

Note: Row totals = 100%
Mean based on scale of very easy = 1, to very difficult = 4

Table 5.8
Student estimation of level of difficulty to learn selected occupations by gender

Occupation	Level of difficulty (%)				
	Very easy	Easy	Somewhat difficult	Very difficult	Mean
Nurse					
Male	1.2	10.0	48.8	40.0	3.27
Female	2.8	15.2	50.5	31.4	3.11
Typist					
Male	17.8	46.9	28.6	6.7	2.24
Female	35.8	48.9	13.9	1.4	1.81
Deck hand					
Male	30.3	42.1	22.8	4.8	2.02
Female	12.0	26.6	37.1	24.3	2.74
Truck driver					
Male	42.5	44.3	12.0	1.2	1.72
Female	26.8	42.6	24.7	5.8	2.10
Cook					
Male	30.1	48.3	19.1	2.6	1.94
Female	38.1	15.5	14.0	2.3	1.80
Teacher					
Male	6.3	20.7	52.1	20.8	2.87
Female	9.0	25.6	49.9	15.6	2.72
Naval architect					
Male	2.4	11.3	39.6	46.8	3.31
Female	0.9	4.0	31.6	63.5	3.58
Dentist					
Male	1.0	5.1	35.7	39.4	3.51
Female	1.0	7.6	58.2	52.1	3.43
Electrician					
Male	7.3	31.5	48.0	13.2	2.67
Female	1.4	9.9	46.9	41.8	3.29
Fish plant worker					
Male	54.0	35.3	8.3	2.4	1.59
Female	41.3	38.9	14.1	5.7	1.84

Note: Mean based on scale of very easy=1, to very difficult=4

Gender stereotypes were seen in the responses to nearly all the occupations except for "store manager," where both sexes responded in a similar fashion. Surprises were "teacher" and "dentist," which the females thought would be a bit easier to learn than did the males (See Table 5.8). "Naval architect" and "electrician" were both perceived as a fair bit easier by the males, and again, somewhat surprisingly given the number of females employed in fish plants, "fish plant worker" was seen as more difficult by the females. Of these typical occupations, that of nurse presented less marked gender differences with respect to learning difficulty perhaps due to the growing number of males in the nursing profession.

Influence of Work Experience

It is likely that any kind of work experience students have influences the development of their vocational-self concept. During the 1988-89 school year many of the students had either worked for the family or family business (22.6%), been self-employed (18.5%) and, or had worked part-time in other situations (45.7%). Many students also indicated that they had worked during summers. Such experiences would have given them, amongst other things, a perspective on the world of work, which would have varied with the nature of the work. How this, in turn, would have actually influenced self-concept is difficult to say, but undoubtably it would have an effect on how they view themselves in the workforce.

SUMMARY

With respect to academic self-concept, most students expected to graduate from high school, estimated their average mark to be 60 percent or more, and considered such marks to be fairly good. However, most students also felt that they could increase their marks by at least 5 percent, but more typically by 10 to 15 percent, if they really worked at it. This was

particularly true for the male students. The belief held by many students that they could substantially improve their marks if they so wished raises interesting questions, not only about the validity of the claims, but also about the factors which influence the motivation of these people, given that the claims are valid. Because time is a major factor in achievement, the use of time by these students will be important in understanding their motivation.

The majority of students were also concerned about careers, as well as, to some extent, selected school subject areas such as math, science, and language arts. From the latter group, math was the main concern. This finding confirms one of the problems that have already been previously identified in the educational system and which led to the recent Task Force Report on math and science (*Towards an Achieving Society*, 1989).

From a vocational perspective, the student rating of the difficulty level of fairly common occupations in Newfoundland conformed generally to expectations, given the GED and SVP levels of those occupations. The gender bias toward typical male/female occupations was also predictable and typical.

One of the more interesting findings of this section is the paradox presented by the females, who, with some justification, perceived themselves to be more productive academically than their male classmates. Nonetheless, they consistently seemed to undervalue themselves when confronted with choices. Despite evidence to the contrary, they believed it would be more difficult for them to learn many of the jobs considered on the questionnaire. In the schools they also had more concerns than males about their ability to perform, even while they perceived their performance more positively than male students did. Women did not aspire to as high a level of education as did the men. This suggests that the underlying values which relate to the view women have of themselves and their capabilities are deeply rooted outside the school, which must be an area of focus if they are to move in larger numbers toward nontraditional careers.

Overall, it would appear that most students had a positive self-concept from an academic and vocational perspective. However, while self-concept may not have been a problem for the majority of Level III students in the Newfoundland school system (in 1989) it obviously was for a small percentage. Even though these students constitute a small group, they are worthy of focus and program targeting.

SECTION SIX

ATTITUDE TOWARDS WORK

The Level III students were questioned on their attitudes toward work since their career paths and transition into the labour market will likely be affected by the way they perceive work. Certainly, the values they place on work will influence their success in terms of selecting, securing and retaining jobs as well as pursuing associated educational opportunities. Attitude towards work will also influence, and be influenced by, such things as where they would prefer to work, conditions they place on employment, and more generally, their motivation to work, as well as a whole host of social, personal and contextual factors. It is also likely to have been influenced by any previous job-related experiences.

PREVIOUS WORK EXPERIENCE OF STUDENTS

Most (85.8%) of the Level III students in the sample indicated that they had had some kind of work experience while attending school. Aspects of this work experience have been discussed in various sections of this document. The experience had varied from casual part-time work after

school to full-time work during summers. Although the effects of these experiences are difficult to determine, they most likely would have helped, as indicated above, in the development and modification, amongst other things, of work attitudes.

Why the students worked is also interesting and again associated with attitudes. The larger proportion (59.2%), and in particular males, seem to have been motivated by money (see Table 6.1). Such basic extrinsic

Table 6.1
Reasons students gave for working

	All students (N=6341)		Male (N=3049)	Female (N=3292)
Most important reason	Freq.	Percent	Percent	Percent
For the money	3751	59.2	64.2	54.5
For the experience	700	11.0	8.5	13.4
Pay for something special they wanted	357	5.6	5.7	5.6
Pay for further education	322	5.1	3.8	6.3
To help the family	243	3.8	3.3	4.3
Other	85	1.3	1.3	1.3
No response	883	13.9	13.2	14.6

Note: Includes all students (85.8% of sample) who said they worked or operated their own business at some time.

rewards are not surprising given the general characteristics of this age group. Much smaller numbers of students gave other reasons such as "for the experience" (11.0%), and to "pay for something special" (5.6%). Some students worked to support their further education (beyond high school), but again, these were in the minority and only accounted for 5.1% of the respondents. A few also worked to help the family.

Students were also asked how much they enjoyed working, and as can be seen in Table 6.2, about two thirds of them gave a positive response. However, another 22.6% did not enjoy the work, a factor that could have

Table 6.2
How much students enjoyed working

	All students (N=6341)		Male (N=3049)	Female (N=3292)
Did you enjoy the work?	Freq.	Percent	Percent	Percent
No	328	5.2	5.9	4.5
Not very much	1104	17.4	19.2	15.8
Yes	3023	47.7	48.2	47.1
Very much	1159	18.3	16.5	19.9
Never worked	56	0.9	0.8	1.0
No response	671	10.6	9.4	11.7

Note: Includes all students (85.8% of sample) who said they had worked or operated their own business at some time.

a negative influence on their attitude about work in general. Such responses might also be explained by the type of work they did and/or the conditions under which they worked. A small number also claimed that they had never worked. This was inconsistent with their response to other questions that attempted to document their experience. It could be that

they did not consider the jobs they had done as work in the sense that it was true wage-earning employment.

PREFERRED WORK LOCATION

When they were asked about their future plans, and about where they would perfer to work, a large proportion (58.1%) of students said they would go anywhere, including other provinces, to get a job. This was especially the case for males (see Table 6.3). Very few were willing to relocate

Table 6.3
Preferred work location of students

	All students (N=7390)		Male (N=3519)	Female (N=3871)
Preferred work location	Freq.	Percent	Percent	Percent
Go anywhere, including other provinces to get a job	4295	58.1	59.8	56.6
Work that is close to home	1810	24.5	24.4	24.6
Go anywhere in province for a job	679	9.2	8.9	9.4
Wouldn't mind going somewhere else in the province where I had relatives	529	7.2	5.6	8.6
No response	77	1.0	1.3	0.8

within the province. This option tended to be more attractive to females if they relocated to where they had relatives. There were, however, 24.5% of the students who preferred work close to home. This attitude

attitude suggests that they would be less inclined to extend job searches beyond their local community, and so for most of them this would reduce their possibilities for employment.

By comparison, the pattern of willingness to relocate for education was somewhat different, although the majority of students preferred or were willing to move away from home. About 25% of these students said they would go to school wherever accepted, suggesting that the desire to continue education was more important than restricting options to a home location. A similar percentage, particularly females, said they would like to live away from home, but within the province (See Table 6.4), and nearly 800 students (13%), preferred

Table 6.4
Preferred location for further education/training

	All students (N=6114)		Male (N=2788)	Female (N=3326)
Preferred location	Freq.	Percent	Percent	Percent
Live at home, but go elsewhere if absolutely necessary	1774	29.0	29.8	28.4
Like to live away from home, but within province	1666	27.2	25.6	28.6
Go to school wherever accepted	1539	25.2	25.9	24.6
Go to school somewhere outside the province	792	13.0	11.5	14.2
Won't go if cannot live at home	89	1.5	1.5	1.4
No response	254	4.2	5.7	2.8

Note: Excludes students who said they definitely planned to work or return to high school.

Table 6.5
Preferred work and education locations compared
(N=6114)

	Preferred work location											
	No response		Like work close to home		Go somewhere else in province if had relatives		Anywhere in province for a job		Go anywhere including out of province		Row Total	
Education location	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Live at home, but go elsewhere if absolutely necessary	17	0.3	809	3.2	131	2.1	142	2.3	675	11.0	1774	29.0
Like to live away from home, but within province	11	0.2	296	4.8	164	2.7	264	4.3	931	15.2	1666	27.2
Go to school wherever accepted	10	0.2	174	2.8	69	1.1	110	1.8	1176	19.2	1539	25.2
Go to school somewhere outside the province	9	0.1	65	1.1	28	0.5	18	0.3	672	11.0	792	13.0
Won't go if cannot live at home	1	---	65	1.1	6	0.1	2	---	15	0.2	89	1.5
No response	8	0.1	61	1.0	14	0.2	24	0.4	147	2.4	254	4.2
Column Total	56	0.9	1470	24.0	412	6.7	560	9.2	3616	59.1	6114	100.0

somewhere outside the province. Again, a larger proportion of these were females.

By contrast, there was also a fairly large group (1774, or 29%) whose preference was to move from home only if absolutely necessary. Only 1.5% of students were adamant about staying at home for their education. Such decisions might well be influenced by money, since it is likely that the costs of education are reduced by living at home.

When preferred location for work and education are compared (see Table 6.5) there appears to be a consistent group of about 800 students whose preference was for work and education near home. However, fairly large numbers of students who preferred education near home (675) or within the province (931) were part of the 3616 students who would go anywhere, including out-of-province, for work (see Table 6.5). It would seem that there is a tendency to be less selective about work location. This may be a product of the current work climate and the negative labour market contextual factors within Newfoundland causing students to realize, that in order to work, a search (and relocation) beyond the home community and the province would be necessary for them to secure more permanent and desirable employment.

GENERAL CONDITIONS PLACED ON EMPLOYMENT

Students were asked to rate a number of statements (on a scale of strongly agree to strongly disagree) about general work and employment conditions. The distribution of responses is shown in Table 6.6. The vast majority of students wanted and expected to work. They saw it as important in their lives. In fact, the statement concerning having a job and doing something useful received the most agreement from students (only 2% disagreed with it). It was particularly noticeable that a significantly higher proportion of females strongly agreed with the statement (nearly 70% compared to 61.7% of males). However most students also expected employment in their area of occupational training, and would place conditions on that employment if it involved personal risk.

Table 6.6
Conditions students place on employment

Conditions	(N)	Amount of agreement (%)				Mean	S.D.
		Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree		
Having a job makes me feel I'm doing something useful with my life	(7053)	65.9	32.1	1.4	0.6	1.37	0.54
Workers should have the right to refuse to work under conditions which they consider to be unsafe	(7060)	57.9	36.7	3.3	2.2	1.50	0.67
Everyone has the right to the kind of job for which his/her education and training has prepared him/her	(7039)	43.4	49.3	6.2	1.1	1.65	0.64
If someone has worked hard in school, they are entitled to a good job	(7042)	26.6	51.0	18.6	3.8	2.00	0.78
If I could earn $8 an hour I would take any job	(7058)	11.6	43.5	36.9	8.1	2.41	0.80
Everyone has the right to collect welfare/unemployment insurance until he/she finds a job in his/her area of training	(7011)	11.4	45.7	31.7	11.2	2.43	0.83
I am not ready for a long-term commitment to a job	(7048)	6.7	31.3	39.6	22.5	2.78	0.87
I'd do just about any kind of work if it were a steady job	(7046)	6.3	26.6	47.9	19.2	2.80	0.82
I would not mind being unemployed for a while	(7044)	3.0	18.9	37.3	40.9	3.16	0.83
I would work for less than the minimum wage	(7022)	1.2	4.4	31.0	63.4	3.57	0.64
I'd rather collect welfare than work at a job I didn't like	(7053)	2.1	4.1	22.9	70.9	3.63	0.66

Note: Non-responses for each statement excluded from analysis

Table 6.7
Conditions placed on employment by gender: amount of agreement

Conditions		(N)	Amount of agreement (%)				Mean	S.D
			Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree		
Having a job makes me feel I'm doing something useful with my life	M	(3352)	61.7	35.7	2.0	0.6	1.42	0.57
	F	(3701)	69.8	28.8	0.8	0.6	1.32	0.52
Workers should have the right to refuse to work under conditions which they consider to be unsafe	M	(3354)	59.1	35.4	3.2	2.2	1.49	0.67
	F	(3706)	56.7	37.8	3.4	2.1	1.51	0.67
Everyone has the right to the kind of job for which his/her education and training has prepared him/her	M	(3351)	39.5	51.5	7.7	1.3	1.71	0.66
	F	(3688)	47.0	47.4	4.7	0.9	1.80	0.62
If someone has worked hard in school, they are entitled to a good job	M	(3353)	24.9	50.0	20.3	4.8	2.05	0.80
	F	(3689)	28.1	52.0	17.0	2.9	1.95	0.75
If I could earn $8 an hour I would take any job	M	(3359)	12.0	45.1	35.2	7.7	2.38	0.70
	F	(3699)	11.2	42.0	38.3	8.5	2.44	0.80
Everyone has the right to collect welfare/unemployment insurance until he/she finds a job in his/her area of training	M	(3348)	13.6	47.8	28.6	10.0	2.35	0.84
	F	(3663)	9.3	43.8	34.5	12.3	2.50	0.83
I am not ready for a long-term commitment to a job	M	(3358)	6.9	32.7	39.2	21.2	2.75	0.87
	F	(3690)	6.4	30.0	39.9	23.6	2.81	0.87
I'd do just about any kind of work if it were a steady job	M	(3347)	7.1	30.8	44.6	17.5	2.72	0.83
	F	(3699)	5.7	22.8	50.8	20.8	2.87	0.80
I would not mind being unemployed for a while	M	(3352)	3.6	20.6	36.2	39.7	3.11	0.85
	F	(3692)	2.4	17.3	38.3	42.0	3.20	0.80
I would work for less than the minimum wage	M	(3335)	1.3	3.7	27.1	67.9	3.62	0.62
	F	(3687)	1.1	5.0	34.6	59.3	3.52	0.64
I'd rather collect welfare than work at job I didn't like	M	(3355)	2.7	5.1	25.3	66.9	3.57	0.71
	F	(3698)	1.6	3.1	20.8	74.5	3.68	0.61

Note: Mean based on strongly agree=1 to strongly disagree=4.

Students would be less inclined, especially females (see Table 6.7) to take any kind of job for the sake of being employed, but would work at jobs they disliked rather than be on welfare. The prospect of any job at a fairly good wage appealed to more than half of the students. Similarly, student opinion was divided (57.1% agreed to some extent) on the statement that "everyone has the right to collect welfare/unemployment insurance until he/she finds a job in his/her area of training." This seems to support the expectation of employment in their areas of training. However, females tended to be more tolerant in this regard, and were slightly less inclined than males to agree with the statement.

JOB ATTITUDE

The students were asked to make choices that would discriminate the level of importance that they attached to (that is, their attitude toward) attributes associated with personal work characteristics, work productivity, and performance on the job. They were asked to choose what they considered would be the most and the least important to an employer of three possibilities. For example, the first set of choices were: "being on time for work;" "listening closely and carefully to instructions;" and "doing top quality work." These attitudinal factor questions were presented in groups of three as shown in Table 6.8.

Score for each factor were analyzed in a way which yielded a range of scores from 5 to 15. Performance was generally ranked the highest with a score of 11.41. Productivity and personal factors were lower, but closer together with scores of 9.43 and 9.09 respectively (see Table 6.9). There was little difference in the scores and the ranking of them by gender. The greater importance attached by all students to performance factors like "doing top quality work," "having a high level of knowledge about the job," and "getting alot done" was fairly predictable for this age group and reflects a somewhat uninformed attitude about work. Many of the more highly desirable work attributes sought by employers are those associated with what were labelled productivity and personal factors, that is, such

Table 6.8
Distribution of job attitude responses

Question grouping	Attitudinal factors	(N)	Level of importance (%)		
			Most important	Somewhat important	Least important
A. Being on time for work	Personal	(N=6637)	17.5	31.5	51.1
Listening closely and carefully to instructions	Productivity		16.6	52.4	31.0
Doing top quality work	Performance		65.9	16.1	17.9
B. Not being absent from work	Personal	(N=6838)	34.1	38.5	27.4
Asking for more when finished a job	Productivity		12.5	28.4	59.1
Learning new skills to use on the job	Performance		53.4	33.1	13.5
C. Having good relations with the fellow workers	Personal	(N=6788)	20.2	25.1	54.8
Keeping up work when boss isn't around	Productivity		44.9	37.1	18.0
Getting the idea quickly and accurately on a new job	Performance		34.9	37.8	27.3
D. Not getting angry when the boss criticizes you	Personal	(N=6818)	31.5	29.3	39.2
Being neat and tidy while I work	Productivity		27.1	39.3	33.6
Getting a lot done	Performance		41.4	31.3	27.2
E. Having a neat, tidy appearance	Personal	(N=6765)	19.0	39.7	41.3
Working steadily, even if more slowly	Productivity		23.4	36.7	39.9
Having a high level of knowledge about the job	Performance		57.6	23.6	18.8

Note: Non-responses to each statement excluded from analysis.

Table 6.9
Job attitude scores by gender

Attitude factors	All students (N=6826)		Male (N=3219)		Female (N=3607)	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Performance	11.48	2.19	11.41	2.14	11.54	2.24
Productivity	9.43	1.72	9.52	1.74	9.35	1.70
Personal	9.09	2.07	9.07	2.06	9.11	2.08

Note: The maximum score for each composite variable was 15 (high attitude), and the minimum was 5 (low attitude).

characteristics as punctuality, attendance, and being able to take constructive criticism. Such work attributes are applicable (transferable) to any job, and certainly assist in such things as job-holding and retention. These are also the factors that are mentioned in references and are extremely important to advancement.

The actual distribution of the responses both with respect to level of importance and within the question groups varies tremendously suggesting that choices were not always easy to make. Although performance was overall the most important factor, it was not always selected as the most important in each question grouping (see group C, Table 6.8).

Also, an examination of the intercorrelations of the scales shows negative correlations, expected for this sort of data since scores tend to trade off against each other. The relatively high correlation of personal and performance (-0.67), and the relatively low correlations of personal and productivity (-0.34) and productivity with performance (-0.46) are further demonstration that the performance factors are seen as most important by the students.

JOB MOTIVATION

Motivation to work is a complex but important issue, and it is usually assumed that, the greater the motivation, the greater the intensity in the search process and desire to obtain employment and/or related education. However, motivation is not a stable factor, and satisfiers and dissatisfies with respect to work tend to vary over time according to many things such as career maturity, work experience, and general life situations. They are further modified by economic fluctuations and job availability. Overall though, there tend to be dominant reasons why people work.

Generally, our society teaches the value of work to secure one's livelihood, and work to provide fulfilment. Such values were reflected in the responses of the students as a group to the job motivation questions. However, social needs were ranked the most important overall (see Table 6.10), closely followed by security and fulfilment. There were though,

Table 6.10
Job motivation scores by gender

Motivation factors	All students (N=6745)		Male (N=3177)		Female (N=3568)	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Social needs	6.11	1.30	5.84	1.30	6.35	1.25
Security	6.00	1.53	6.35	1.56	5.70	1.45
Fulfilment	5.89	1.41	5.82	1.52	5.95	1.31

Note: The maximum total score for each composite variable was 9 (high priority), and the minimum was 3 (low priority)

contrasting male\female differences. The male students put security well ahead of the other two motivation factors; while females put social needs at the top followed by fulfilment. The male priorities are somewhat

consistent with their responses to other questions which suggested that they wanted to work to start supporting themselves the following year if they were not going to continue their education and training. Money had also been a past motivator.

The motivation questions had been presented in groups of three, each containing one question related to security, fulfilment and social needs. Respondents were asked to choose the most important and least important from each set. The distribution of these responses is shown in Table 6.11. As can be seen, the level of importance attached to each of the different motivational factors varied somewhat across each group of questions. Such variability can be accounted for, in part, by the differences associated with male verses female priorities (as indicated previously), and also by the overall importance the students as individuals attached to each motivational factor since any given factor was obviously more important to some people than others.

An examination of the intercorrelations of the scales shows, once again, negative correlations as scores trade off against each other. The relatively high correlations of fulfilment (-0.61) and social factors (-0.51) with security, and the lower correlation (-0.36) of fulfilment with social factors suggests that for the majority, security factors are traded against the others.

LOCUS OF CONTROL

Attitude towards work can also be examined from the perspective of locus of control, that is, the extent to which students consider they have the ability to excercise control on how decisions are made about their lives. In this survey, the students were given several paired statements about reasons why people might have trouble finding work. Each pair contained an external and an internal locus of control statement. Students were asked which statement in each pair they thought was more important. The distribution of responses is shown in Table 6.12.

Table 6.11
Distribution of job motivation responses

Question grouping	Motivation type	(N)	Level of importance (%)		
			Most important	Somewhat important	Least important
A. Work that pays well	Security	(6573)	39.3	24.5	36.2
Work that gives a feeling of accomplishment	Fulfilment		46.7	29.3	23.9
Work where other people are friendly and helpful	Social (needs)		14.2	46.2	39.8
B. A workplace that is healthy and safe	Security	(6788)	44.5	38.9	16.6
Work where you make most of the decisions yourself	Fulfilment		14.8	20.6	64.6
Work that gives you a chance to help other people	Social (needs)		40.7	40.5	18.7
C. Work with little chance of being laid off	Security	(6655)	20.7	28.1	51.3
Work that is interesting	Fulfilment		38.1	40.7	21.2
Work with good chances of promotion and advancement	Social (needs)		41.2	31.3	27.5

Note: Non-responses to each statement excluded from analysis.

Table 6.12
Distribution by gender of the locus of control responses concerning finding work

Statement pairs	Locus of control type	Percentage giving response most important		
		All students	Male	Female
Inadequate advice by teachers and guidance counsellors	External	15.3	15.3	15.3
or	or			
Lack of effort by the unemployed to find a job	Internal	84.7	84.7	84.7
Many young people are not that concerned about finding a job right now	Internal	25.6	26.3	25.1
or	or			
Young people lack the work experience that employers want	External	74.4	73.7	74.9
Young people do not know how to present themselves favourably in job interviews	Internal	87.6	87.8	87.4
or	or			
Young people get poor advice from counsellors	External	12.4	12.2	12.6
You have to know someone or pull a few strings to get a job	External	50.1	53.0	47.5
or	or			
Young people are too choosey about jobs they will take	Internal	49.9	47.0	52.5
Getting a job depends on having a good attitude about working	Internal	91.9	91.3	92.5
or	or			
Schools and universities do not provide the knowledge and skills that employers want	External	8.1	8.7	7.5
There are no jobs to be had	External	39.2	36.4	41.7
or	or			
People don't want to move to where the work is	Internal	60.8	63.6	58.3

Note: An average of 6868 students, responded to each question pair, of which there were 3229 males and 3639 females. Average locus of control score was 10.0 based on a maximum of 12 (internal locus of control) to a minimum of 6 (external locus of control).

Overall, the trend was for the students to indicate a fairly high degree of internal locus of control which could be interpreted to mean that they themselves considered they could influence decisions (concerning finding work) to a fair degree. However, although there was a certain consistency to the selection of internal factors, there was some variability. In particular, only 25.6% chose the internal control statement "many young people are not that concerned about finding a job right now" compared to 74.4% who chose the external control statement "young people lack the work experience that employers want." This reversal to the general trend to select internal control factors may reflect a common concern among young people that employers often seek experienced workers, and that, in many cases, the prior work experience in a chosen career occupation can be difficult to obtain, especially in any reasonable amount.

Student responses were also evenly split on their choice of statements that indicated on the one hand that "young people are too choosey about the jobs they will take" (internal control), compared to "you have to know someone or pull a few strings to get a job." The tendency toward the external control variable in this case reflects, in part, some of what students consider are the best ways to get jobs. These include personal contact and knowing someone important.

There were a few, small, gender differences in the responses. The men were more likely than the women to believe that "you have to know someone to get a job." Women were more likely than men to respond that "there are no jobs to be had."

SUMMARY

Students had worked in the past (while at school) mostly for money. Very few had worked for other reasons that extended beyond this basic reward and generally the higher-order motivators were absent. Most had enjoyed the work they did, although some had not. The reasons for the less positive reaction to work were not ascertained, but could well have been caused by any number of job-related or circumstantial factors.

A large proportion of students desired work as part of their future plans. They expected and wanted to be employed to the extent that they were willing to relocate in, but more especially out of the province, to secure a job. This indicated, at least on the surface, a vibrant work ethic and a positive attitude toward seeking employment. It is also likely that contextual factors also came into play here, and the reality of the often dismal Newfoundland job market had a residual effect that made a wider search for employment necessary for those determined to work compared to a more localised search and the availing of post-secondary educational opportunities within the province.

Along with a favourable attitude toward employment, the students, particularly females, also expected to work in their area of occupational preparation. They were particular about taking any kind of work, but preferred not to be on welfare. Females especially saw having work as a useful facet of their lives. A more divisive issue for all students was the situation of perhaps choosing between collecting unemployment insurance and taking work that was not in their area of training. Generally, the students tended to choose the former.

The expectation that one should be able to work in one's area of training is inconsistent with the realities of the modern labour market, where one must be flexible enough to adapt. A difficulty faced by young people today is making a decision on the match of their selected training and the availability of work, and many of the sample did not seem prepared to be accomodating in this regard.

When considering different facets of work, the larger number of students evidently considered performance factors to be more important than those related to productivity and personal attributes. All three of these are generally acknowledged by employers to be associated with valuable attitudinal work factors; however, employers tend to give higher priority to productivity and personal attributes. Attitudes associated with these factors also tend to be more transferable and generic to many occupations. Furthermore, they tend to be important job-holding attributes, and can also help in obtaining employment.

The relative importance of various job motivation factors was not clearcut. Social needs were rated by students as the most important, especially by females. However, the most important motivators for males appeared to be those associated with job security. Also, females gave second highest priority to fulfilment motivators, whereas males placed social needs second and fulfilment last, although average scores on these were very close.

Students also exhibited a fairly strong degree of internal locus of control with respect to finding employment, that is, they considered, to a certain extent, that they had some control and influence on the actions they could take rather than being solely guided by external factors. There were apparent concerns about such things as not having sufficient work experience to be considered for jobs because they believed that employers sought experienced workers. Such perceptions are probably somewhat accurate. Also, in recent years there has been a general growth in the use of on-the-job involvement as part of occupational preparation programs that go part way in addressing this issue.

SECTION SEVEN

KNOWLEDGE RELATED TO EDUCATION & EMPLOYMENT

As individual aspirations develop with respect to work and education, knowledge about preparation for work becomes an important attribute that aids appropriate planning and decision-making and also helps to facilitate action. It is interwoven with the search process. Information is needed about educational opportunities in general, and more specifically about institutions, programs, funding and admission procedures as well as a host of related factors. Similarly, information is needed about many aspects of work, including the job market and how and where to actually apply for and obtain employment. As job and educational searches proceed, and as personal experience and information in either or both accrue, then more knowledge is generated. Individuals need to know how to continue to access and explore further information as part of a continuing developmental process.

Level III students were asked a number of questions related to post-secondary educational institutions, the cost of education, and ways to finance it. Additional questions were related to information about employment; including, ways to obtain jobs, application processes, and in general terms, future occupational areas in the province.

Most of these questions, asked toward the end of the secondary experience, can be interpreted within the context of choice of direction. They relate to the perceptions and knowledge that could play an important role in the decisions that these students were in the process of making about their lives immediately upon leaving high school. One issue having an important bearing on the decision about continuing education or training is finances.

FINANCING EDUCATION

Family as a Source of Educational Financing

Students were asked if they knew how much their family would contribute if they continued their education after high school. Nearly half the students (47.6%) considered that the family would pay for some portion of their costs (see Table 7.1). However, few families (only 15%) would pay the total amount. A large number of students (3071 or 41.6%) also did not know how much financial support the family would provide.

There were some gender differences. A few more females than males thought that they knew what their families would contribute, and it appeared that females were in general, somewhat more confident than males that their families would make some contribution.

Other Sources of Educational Financing

When asked a question about how they could pay for their education other than by contributions from the family, almost half of the students (46.3%) listed some kind of work. There was a particular reliance on full-time summer work, a method cited by most students who intended to rely on work to support education. There was also a small group (497 students, or 6.7%) who said they would work full-time for a year to support their education (see Table 7.2). The second largest proportion of students (30.3%) listed student loans as the way to pay for education. Within this latter group were significantly more females

Table 7.1
Proportion of education family will pay for

	All students (N=7390)		Male (N=3519)		Female (N=3871)	
Cost of Education	Freq	Percent	Freq	Percent	Freq.	Percent
Don't know	3071	41.6	1561	44.4	1510	39.0
None	683	9.2	349	9.9	334	8.6
About one-quarter	672	9.1	267	7.6	405	10.5
About one-half	888	12.0	421	12.0	467	12.1
About three-quarters	852	11.5	412	11.7	440	11.4
All	1112	15.0	443	12.6	669	17.3
No response	112	1.5	66	1.9	46	1.2

(36.9% compared to 23.0% of males). By contrast, male reliance on each of the work categories was greater. Very few students cited personal savings as a source of financing their education, even though most had indicated that they had worked for money during their secondary school experience.

Borrowing as a Source of Educational Financing

Students were also asked if they thought their family would borrow money for them to continue their education. Many (41.4%) simply did not know,

Table 7.2
Ways to pay for education other than family

	All students (N=7390)		Male (N=3519)		Female (N=3871)	
Ways to pay for education	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent
Summer job full-time	2381	32.2	1202	34.2	1179	30.5
Student loan	2238	30.3	808	23.0	1430	36.9
Part-time job during year	690	9.3	338	9.6	352	9.1
Work full-time for a year	497	6.7	260	7.4	237	6.1
Haven't thought about it	380	5.1	224	6.4	156	4.0
Summer job part-time	290	3.9	146	4.1	144	3.7
Personal savings	255	3.5	120	3.4	135	3.5
Enlist in armed forces	233	3.2	179	5.1	54	1.4
Scholarship	128	1.7	60	1.7	68	1.8
No response	104	1.4	71	2.0	33	0.9
Work with the family	68	.9	53	1.5	15	0.4
CEIC Seat	56	.8	28	0.8	28	0.7
Bursary	52	.7	24	0.7	28	0.7
Could not help pay	18	.2	6	0.2	12	0.3

and 31.4% considered the family would borrow money. A few more females than males thought their families would do this (see Table 7.3)

In a question that was rather revealing of students motivation to obtain higher levels of education, they were asked their personal feelings about borrowing to further their education. A few persons either did not respond, or said they would never borrow to pay for their education.

Table 7.3
Family borrow money to pay for education by gender

	All students (N=7390)		Male (N=3519)		Female (N=3871)	
Family borrow	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent
Yes	2319	31.4	1042	29.6	1277	33.0
No	1904	25.8	946	26.9	958	24.7
Don't Know	3063	41.4	1469	41.7	1594	41.2
No Response	104	1.4	62	1.8	42	1.1

Almost half (45.1%) said that one should borrow only if there was a chance to get a good job as a result. About half (49.1%) said that education was always worth borrowing for, with women more likely to say this than men (see Table 7.4).

It was evident that despite their mixed feelings about borrowing money, loans were seen by most to be a possible source of financing for their education. In fact, loans, bursaries and scholarships between them are potential sources of great importance.

In other question about how much they knew about these financial resources, it became quite evident that most students either knew very little or nothing at all about any of them (see Table 7.5). In fact, only

Table 7.4
How student felt about borrowing from a bank to finance their education

	All students (N=7390)		Male (N=3579)		Female (N=3871)	
Student response	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent
No response	172	2.3	100	2.8	72	1.9
Never	245	3.3	166	4.7	79	2.0
Only for a good job	3331	45.1	1709	48.6	1622	41.9
Always worth it	3641	49.3	3641	43.9	2097	54.2

4.3% of students said they knew "quite a lot" about bursaries. More, but still only about one quarter of the students said that they knew a lot about scholarships and loans.

Comparing the average rating given in Table 7.5 based on knowledge of each of these three sources of funds, it is evident that students felt they knew most about student loans, followed by scholarships, then last of all by bursaries. This should not be surprising since fewer students tend to be eligible for bursaries and scholarships, and so would rely more on loans to support education. Differences by gender are also quite striking, and as can be seen in Table 7.5, females tended to say they knew more about all three categories of funds. This again is not surprising since more females, as indicated previously (see Table 7.2) were more likely to consider bursaries and student loans as a source of funds to continue their education.

Table 7.5
Knowledge of bursaries/scholarships and student loans by gender

		Amount of knowledge								
		Quite a lot		Not very much		Nothing at all		No response		Average
	(N)	Freq.	%	Freq	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Rating
Bursaries										
Male	(3519)	133	3.8	1253	35.6	2032	57.7	101	2.9	1.44
Female	(3871)	184	4.8	1589	41.0	2012	52.0	86	2.2	1.52
Total	(7390)	317	4.3	2842	38.5	4044	54.7	187	2.5	1.48
Scholarships										
Male	(3519)	807	22.9	2054	58.4	545	15.5	113	3.2	2.08
Female	(3871)	979	25.3	2382	61.5	425	11.0	857	2.2	2.15
Total	(7390)	1786	24.2	4436	60.0	970	13.1	198	2.7	2.11
Loans										
Male	(3519)	973	27.6	1991	56.6	448	12.7	107	3.0	2.15
Female	(3871)	1086	28.1	2340	60.4	369	9.5	76	2.0	2.19
Total	(7390)	2059	27.9	4331	58.6	817	11.1	183	2.4	2.17

Note: Average rating based on quite a lot = 3 to nothing at all = 1

Table 7.6
How to obtain money from bursaries/scholarships and loans
(N=7390)

How to obtain money	Bursaries		Scholarships		Loans	
	Freq	Percent	Freq.	Percent	Freq	Percent
Don't know/no ans.	6298	85.2	4648	62.9	4536	61.4
Apply	815	11.0	1142	15.5	1973	26.7
Apply to high school	18	.2	139	1.9	24	.3
Apply to university	27	.4	75	1.0	154	2.1
Apply to canada student loan	4	.1	3	.0	110	1.5
Apply to bank	16	.2	9	.1	300	4.1
Write tests/exams	16	.2	847	11.5	4	.1
High marks	33	.4	443	6.0	10	.1
Other government agencies	146	2.0	43	.6	245	3.3
Varies/depends	17	.2	41	.6	34	.5

More specific open ended questions relating to obtaining money, getting information, and the amount of money available for bursaries, scholarships and student loans were quite revealing. It was apparent from this analysis that the majority of students did not know how to obtain money from these sources. Over 88% of students either didn't know, or simply said, "apply", when asked how to get a student loan (see Table 7.6). Several categories of methods were actually given, but the most

frequently cited method was simply "apply"; a method given by 26.7% of respondents under obtaining money for loans. An examination of gender differences (see Table 7.7 tended to show that females had

Table 7.7
How to obtain money from bursaries/scholarships/loans by gender (Male: N=3519; Female: N=3871)

How to obtain money	Percentages					
	Bursaries		Scholarships		Loans	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Don't know/no answer	89.5	81.3	67.7	58.6	65.9	57.3
Apply	7.6	14.2	12.2	18.4	22.6	30.4
Apply to high school	0.2	0.3	1.6	2.2	0.3	0.3
Apply to university	0.2	0.5	0.9	1.1	1.8	2.3
Apply to canada student loan	0.1	---	---	0.1	1.6	1.4
Apply to bank	0.3	0.2	0.3	---	4.0	4.1
Write tests/exam	0.1	0.3	9.5	13.3	0.1	0.1
High marks	0.5	0.4	6.8	5.3	0.1	0.2
Other government agencies	1.4	2.5	0.6	0.6	3.2	3.5
Varies/depends	0.1	0.3	0.5	0.6	0.4	0.5

marginally more knowledge of how to obtain money for bursaries, loans and scholarships.

Asking students how much money was available through bursaries scholarships and loans was interesting. Most simply did not know, especially with respect to bursaries (see Table 7.8). The next most

Table 7.8
Perceived amount of money available from bursaries/scholarships and loans (N=7390)

	Bursaries		Scholarships		Loans	
Amount of money	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent
Don't know	6587	89.1	4894	66.2	51.3	69.1
100. - 499.	94	1.3	167	2.3	20	0.3
500. - 999.	182	2.5	610	8.3	90	1.2
1,000. - 2,999.	195	2.6	485	6.6	620	8.4
3,000. - 4,999.	24	0.3	113	1.5	302	4.1
5,000. - 10,000.	29	0.4	142	1.9	193	2.6
Over 10,000.	8	0.1	65	0.9	35	0.5
Depends on income	14	0.2	16	0.2	453	6.1
Depends on academic qualifications	3	0.0	24	0.3	2	0.0
Varies/depends	254	3.4	874	11.8	572	7.7

common response was typically "varies/depends," or in the case of loans, "depends on income." This latter group of responses tends to reflect reality to some extent, since bursary awards, scholarships, and to a larger extent loans, do vary according to specific criteria governing each. However, a quick perusal of provincial post-secondary calendars reveals that the majority of scholarships and bursaries are in the $500 category, an amount cited by only a few hundred students. It was also evident that more male students did not know the amounts of money available from each of the three sources (see Table 7.9).

Table 7.9
Perceived amount of money available from bursaries/scholarship and loans by gender (Male: N=3519; Female: N=3871)

	Percentage					
	Bursaries		Scholarships		Loans	
Amount of money	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Don't know	91.7	86.8	70.7	62.2	72.9	65.5
100. - 499.	0.9	1.6	2.0	2.5	0.2	0.4
500. - 999.	2.1	2.8	7.3	9.1	1.1	1.4
1,000. - 2,999.	2.4	2.9	6.5	6.6	8.3	8.5
3,000. - 4,999.	0.3	0.4	1.2	1.8	3.6	4.5
5,000. - 10,000.	0.3	0.5	1.7	2.1	2.7	2.5
Over 10,000.	0.1	0.1	0.9	0.9	0.7	0.3
Depends on income	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.3	3.9	8.2
Depends on academic qualifications	---	0.1	0.2	0.4	---	---
Varies/depends	2.1	4.6	9.3	14.1	6.7	8.7

Table 7.10
Where do you get information about bursaries?

	All students (N=7390)		Male (N=3519)	Female (N=3871)
	Freq.	Percent	Percent	Percent
Don't know/no response	4824	65.3	70.2	60.8
Guidance counsellor	1294	17.5	14.7	20.1
Other school personnel	928	12.6	11.3	13.7
Government	188	2.5	1.9	3.1
University/ college	126	1.7	0.9	2.4
Parents/ relations	70	0.9	1.0	0.9
Classmates/ friends	67	0.9	0.9	1.0
Media	64	0.9	0.6	1.1
Various departments	18	0.2	0.2	0.3
Post-secondary institutes	7	0.1	---	0.2

Note: Up to two responses recorded.

With respect to obtaining information on bursaries, scholarships and loans, again many students said that either they did not know how to do this, or did not give a response to the question. This was particularly the

case for bursaries for which such responses amounted to 65.3%. For scholarships and loans the situation was a little better with the "don't know/no response" being about 40% (see Tables 7.10, 7.11 and 7.12).

Table 7.11
Where do you get information about scholarships?

	All students (N=7390)		Male (N=3519)	Female (N=3871)
	Freq.	Percent	Percent	Percent
Don't know/no response	2957	40.0	46.1	34.5
Other school personnel	2270	30.7	27.6	33.6
Guidance counsellor	1949	26.4	22.7	29.7
University/ college	284	3.8	3.2	4.5
Classmates/ friends	115	1.6	1.8	1.3
Media	110	1.5	1.2	1.8
Parents/ relations	107	1.4	1.6	1.3
Various departments	70	0.9	0.8	1.1
Government	53	0.7	0.6	0.8
Post-secondary institutes	9	0.1	0.1	0.1

Note: Up to two responses recorded

However, some sources of information were listed by students, with the most frequently cited being guidance counsellors and other school personnel. Also, surprisingly few students (1.8%) said they would obtain bursary information from any of the post-secondary institutions. This also

Table 7.12
Where do you get information about loans?

	All students (N=7390)		Male (N=3519)	Female (N=3871)
	Freq.	Percent	Percent	Percent
Don't know/no response	2879	39.0	44.4	34.0
Guidance counsellor	1852	25.1	21.3	28.4
Other school personnel	1465	19.8	18.0	21.4
Government	641	8.7	7.0	9.4
University/ college	543	7.3	6.3	8.3
Parents/ relations	292	4.0	3.7	4.2
Classmates/ friends	231	3.1	3.1	3.2
Media	940	1.3	1.1	1.5
Various departments	27	0.4	0.4	0.3
Post-secondary institutes	51	0.7	0.6	0.8

Note: Up to two responses recorded

applied to scholarships, for which the percentage was higher (3.9%), but still very small. A breakdown by gender revealed that significantly more females did give a source of information, with more of them (compared to males) citing the guidance counsellors and school personnel.

Financial Planning of Possible Post-Secondary Students

Of the total of 7390 students in the survey, 6114 had definitely decided or were actively considering attendance at a post-secondary institution the following year. These persons can be considered to have moved to the stage where a serious consideration of ways and means was necessary.

When asked how much money they would need over the next year to continue their education, about one third of the prospective post-secondary students (32.8%) said between five and ten thousand dollars. The accuracy of this and the other estimates given (see Table 7.13) is difficult

Table 7.13
Money needed to continue education
(N=6114)

Amount of money	Freq.	Percent
< $1000.	69	1.1
$1,000. - 2,999.	908	14.9
$3,000. - 4,999.	731	12.0
$5,000. - 10,000.	2008	32.8
> $10,000.	192	3.1
Varies/not sure	1188	19.5
No response	1018	16.7

to assess since the amount of money required for education obviously varies according to institutions and programs, as well as with the location of the institution and any cost incurred of such things as room and board or residence. But thought had obviously been given to the money needed, and the range of five to ten thousand dollars would cover most types of post-secondary education for a year. However, a fairly large group of students (19.5%) also simply stated that they were not sure of how much they needed or that the amount they would need would vary. Another 16.7% did not respond to the question. Together, these categories amount to over one third of the students, who if they definitely planned further education following high school, would need to obtain information on costs during the three to four months after the time of this survey

As a main source of funds to continue their education the following year (after high school), the three most frequently cited categories were bursaries and student loans (35.1%), parents (28.5%), and work (13.6%). The several other sources listed (see Table 7.14) only accounted for 3.5% of responses, including less than 1% who listed scholarships. Also, 13% of students did not know of, or did not list a source of funds. There were also some significant gender differences in sources for funding, with a much higher female reliance on bursaries and student loans (40.2% compared to 28.9% male responses). On the other hand, more males (17% compared to 10.4% of females), gave work as the source primary of funds.

The most common second source of funds given by students were similar to the main sources listed above, but were ordered differently. Parents were the most frequently cited second source, being listed by 25% of respondents, followed by work (24.9%), and then bursaries and student loans (14.8%). Differences of source by gender were less marked, with only the category of parents being a significantly higher source for females (see Table 7.15).

Given the above sources, it is evident that bursaries and loans were considered by about half of the students as a likely first or second source of funds to continue their education. In an earlier question, many students

Table 7.14
Main sources of funds to continue education

	All students (N=6114)		Male (N=2788)	Female (N=3326)
Source	Freq.	Percent	Percent	Percent
Bursaries/student loans	2143	35.1	28.9	40.2
Parents	1745	28.5	28.0	29.0
Work	830	13.6	17.4	10.4
Savings/insurance	343	5.6	5.8	5.4
Family	100	1.6	1.7	1.6
Scholarships	44	0.7	0.6	0.8
Armed forces plan	31	0.5	0.9	0.2
UIC	27	0.4	0.7	0.2
CEIC	12	0.2	0.2	0.2
Social services	8	0.1	0.2	0.1
Don't know	165	2.7	3.5	2.0
No response	616	10.1	11.2	9.1
Not answering question as asked	50	0.8	0.8	0.8

had cited parents or family as the main source of funding for education. However, as can be seen in Table 7.16 they did not obviously consider that all of their funding would come from that source. In fact, only 36.8% thought that family would pay all of the funds for education. As a secondary source of funds, the proportion family would pay diminished considerably. In fact many students considering family as a backup didn't know how much to expect as a contribution from family. This strongly suggests that students would need funding support from other sources.

Table 7.15
Second source of funds to continue education

	All students (N=6114)		Male (N=2788)	Female (N=3326)
Source	Freq.	Percent	Percent	Percent
Parents	1526	25.0	22.9	26.7
Work	1523	24.9	25.5	24.4
Bursaries/student loans	904	14.8	14.7	14.8
Savings/insurance	586	9.6	9.5	9.7
Family	214	3.5	4.0	3.1
Scholarships	168	2.7	2.2	3.2
CEIC	17	0.3	0.1	0.4
UIC	13	0.2	0.3	0.1
Social services	7	0.1	0.1	0.2
Armed forces plan	6	0.1	0.2	--
Don't know	245	4.0	4.6	3.5
No response	851	13.9	15.2	12.8
Not answering question as asked	54	0.9	0.8	1.0

Table 7.16
Stated sources of funding for education compared to how much of total cost family will pay for

Proportion of education costs students know family will pay	Percentage: Parents and family as main source of funds (N=1997)	Percentage: Parents and family as second source of funds. (N=1915)
Don't know	19.6	46.5
None	0.8	4.2
About one quarter	2.3	15.4
About one-half	13.9	16.9
About three-quarters	26.0	7.4
All	36.8	9.2
No response	0.7	0.6

POST-SECONDARY EDUCATION

Information on Post-secondary Institutions

How do students find out about post-secondary educational opportunities? There are some obvious ways that students in school might be exposed to some of these and students were asked about them, particularly with respect to institutions in the province. We focused on students who had decided, or were considering continuing their education during the following year, a total of 6114 students. They were asked if they had visited specific places, read information about institutions, and if they had heard a talk by a visitor from the institutions. As would be expected,

responses varied by institution and there were some gender differences in the responses to these questions.

It would appear that most students find out about post-secondary educational institutions and opportunities through either reading information and, or listening to an institutional visitor (speaker). The dominance of one or the other of these information sources varied with institution, and as can be seen in Table 7.17, less than half of the students had, except for Memorial University, read information or heard a speaker from any of the institutions. Generally the trend was, that the larger the institution in terms of enrolment, the more exposed that students were to an information source about the institution. A notable exception to this was perhaps the Marine Institute from which 40.7% of the students had heard a speaker, and 33.1% had read information. However, despite this exposure, there was a low level of choice of the Marine institute, or interest in marine and fisheries related careers. Also, it was clear that fewer students gathered information from the more specialised institutions or training places. For example, only 14.5% of students said they had read information about the Police Academy.

With respect to visits to institutions and training places, by far the most popular was Memorial University which 34.7% of students had visited. The next highest were visits to Community Colleges (15.4%), Marine Institute (14.2%), and Cabot Institute (12.4%). The portion of students visiting the other institutions was much lower, again perhaps reflecting the specialized nature of some institutions as well as their geographic location, or simply the lack of opportunity to make visits.

Students were also asked if they had sent any applications to the listed institutions and training places. This action may have been the result of previously acquired information and developing aspirations. As would be expected towards the end of a Level III year, many reported that they had typically sent in only one application. The largest number of applications (35.5%) were to Memorial University. Smaller numbers had sent

Table 7.17
Knowledge of post-secondary institutions
(N=6114)

Institutions & training places	Sent applic.		Visited		Read info.		Heard spkr.		No contact at all	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
MUN (St. John's Campus)	2169	35.5	2119	34.7	3467	56.7	3273	53.5	1974	32.3
Cabot Institute	1027	16.8	756	12.4	2698	44.0	2350	38.4	2635	43.1
Community Colleges	982	16.1	940	15.4	1882	30.8	1389	22.7	3549	58.0
Institutions outside Newfoundland	736	12.0	321	5.3	1602	26.2	988	16.2	4315	70.6
Sir Wilfred Grenfell College	512	8.4	586	9.6	1093	17.9	771	12.6	4636	75.8
Armed Forces	378	6.2	459	7.5	1879	30.7	2191	35.8	3556	58.2
Marine Institute	328	5.4	866	14.2	2021	33.1	2488	40.7	3046	49.8
Fisher Institute	324	5.3	477	7.8	1184	19.4	1290	21.1	4266	69.8
Hospital Nursing School	253	4.1	315	5.2	904	14.8	647	10.6	4906	80.2
Private Career Colleges	186	3.0	148	2.4	913	14.9	965	15.8	4789	78.3
Other Institutions in Newfoundland	141	2.3	125	2.0	582	9.5	480	7.9	5299	86.7
Police Academy	86	1.4	131	2.1	886	14.5	811	13.3	4841	79.2

Note: Students who definitely planned to return to high school, or work full-time rather than continue education were not included.

applications to the Cabot Institute (16.8%), and to the various Community Colleges (16.1%).The fourth highest percentage of applications (12.0%) were to out-of-province institutions. Again, the smaller and/or more specialized or localized institutions and training places received less attention.

Gender differences with respect to obtaining information about institutions and training opportunities are shown in Table 7.18 Some of the differences are fairly predictable given traditional male/female biases in such things as armed forces training in which there was significantly more male activity in terms of reading information, visits, or listening to speakers. The reverse bias was evident with respect to hospital nursing schools in which there was considerably more female interest in all the areas of knowledge acquisition.

Other institutions and training places reflecting a higher portion of female interest were Memorial University, the Cabot Institute and the private career colleges. Part of this is probably explained by the high interest (and enrolment) in occupational preparation programs in areas related to business and service types of occupations, particularly at the Cabot and the private colleges, which again have been traditionally female choices.

A similar gender bias is reflected in the proportion of applications sent to the different institutions. Male applications were significantly higher for the armed forces, the Marine Institute and the police academy; whereas female applications were higher for such places as the Cabot Institute, private career colleges and the hospital nursing schools, as well as Memorial University.

Overall, the amount of information gathering (including applications) with respect to Memorial University stands out in comparison to other places. Many students obviously have an interest in continuing their education at the university level. This becomes even more apparent when the numbers for Memorial, Sir Wilfred Grenfell and "other institutions outside Newfoundland" are combined since many in the latter category were also

Table 7.18
Knowledge of post-secondary institutions
by gender
(Male: N=2788; Female: N=3326)

Institutions & training places	Percentages							
	Sent applic.		Visited		Read info.		Heard spkr.	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
MUN - St. John's Campus	32.0	38.4	31.5	37.3	51.2	61.3	50.3	56.2
Community College	15.9	16.2	13.8	16.7	28.3	32.9	22.3	23.1
Cabot Institute	15.3	18.0	11.1	13.4	39.9	47.5	32.8	38.6
Other Institution outside Nfld.	10.9	13.0	4.8	5.6	22.7	29.2	15.4	16.8
Armed Forces	9.2	3.7	10.8	4.8	36.7	25.7	39.5	32.8
Marine Institute	9.0	2.3	15.0	13.5	36.9	29.9	41.5	40.0
Sir Wilfred Grenfell College	8.0	8.7	8.5	10.5	16.1	19.3	13.1	12.2
Fisher Institute	6.0	4.7	7.6	7.9	20.1	18.8	21.4	20.8
Police Academy	2.2	0.8	2.7	1.7	16.3	13.0	15.1	11.8
Other Institution in Nfld.	1.9	2.7	2.0	2.1	7.6	11.2	7.7	7.9
Private Career Colleges	1.4	4.4	1.7	3.0	10.3	18.8	12.8	18.3
Hospital Nursing School	0.6	7.1	1.4	8.3	3.6	24.1	5.0	15.2

universities. One factor may be as well that admission to Memorial is more open than that to some of the technical and vocational programs.

Selectivity of the information gathering can also be examined, first from the perspective of action taken (or not taken) with respect to each institution and training place, and second by looking collectively at the knowledge gathering processes across all institutions and places. Table 7.17 shows the amount of no contact for each of the four specified information activities for each institution. For example, 32.3% of students said they had not read about, heard a speaker, visited, or sent an application to Memorial University. For other institutions, this percentage tended to be much higher (up to 86.7%). Again, the amounts of overall information seeking, including making applications, may well be reflected in the geographic location of some institutions, as well as the uniqueness of programs and training at others.

Looking collectively at all the post-secondary institutions and training places (see Table 7.19) reveals that, as might be expected, that reading information was the most popular activity engaged in by almost 90% of the students. A large number of students (82.45%) had also heard a speaker. The activity least frequently engaged in was visiting, typically a more selective and opportune process for many students.

Table 7.19
Overall student use of information sources
(N=6114)

Information related activities	Freq.	Percent
Read information	5480	89.6
Heard speaker	5035	82.4
Sent application	4723	77.2
Visited	3723	60.9

EMPLOYMENT RELATED INFORMATION

Impact of Work Experience

The work experience of Level III students can be categorised in many different ways. In a previous question concerning how time was spent after school and weekends over the past year, large percentages of students indicated involvement in some kind of work (see Table 3.8, page 31). For some students it was part-time work for a non-family business. For others it was self-employment or work for the family business, or combinations of these. In other questions, students were asked about part-time and summer work they had experienced at any time while in school, and as can be seen in Table 7.20, over two-thirds of all students indicated they had had some kind of such work or a combination of both.

Table 7.20
Summer and part-time jobs while attending school

Employment category	All students (N=7390)		Male (N=3519)	Female (N=3871)
	Freq.	Percent	Percent	Percent
Summer job only	2243	30.4	30.6	30.1
Part-time job only	903	12.2	12.6	11.9
Both summer and part-time jobs	2024	27.4	28.1	26.7
No jobs	1796	24.3	22.4	26.0
No response	424	5.7	6.3	5.2

There was also some indication that the work participation of males was slightly higher than that of females in each of the summer, part-time or combined categories (see Table 7.20). Overall, more females than males reported that they had had neither summer or part-time work.

The impact of work experience is the more important issue here, especially as it relates to students gaining knowledge of real work situations and what it means to work for someone. It is difficult to assess in precise terms due to the range and variety of the work, but is likely to have exposed them to typical job attributes desired by employers such as dependability, punctuality and willingness to learn. The jobs experienced, most likely low or semi-skilled involving rudimentary occupational knowledge, may have been totally unrelated to future occupational aspirations, but would still have been an exposure to the world of work. The wage earning is also likely to have provide some degree of financial independence and, in some cases, a means to support post-secondary education, though the previously presented analysis suggests that this contribution is marginal.

How to Get Jobs--Gaining Access to Work

Knowing how to apply for work, as well as using a number of relevant techniques can be important. Several possible ways to obtain jobs were listed and students were asked to indicate all those they had used to get their last job (typically a part-time or summer job). As can be seen in Table 7.21, the two most popular ways were through personal contact, namely "I knew someone who got me a job" (26.2%), and "in person" (25.4%). The third most popular was through submission of an application or resume (23.6%). A small number (8.4%), obtained a job through a CEIC office.

Table 7.21 also shows the differences in obtaining jobs by gender. There is little variation with respect to most of the ways used except for two of them. A significantly greater number of males obtained jobs by knowing someone who helped them, or through a family business.

Table 7.21
How obtained last job by gender

Ways obtained job	All students (N=7390)		Male (N=3519)		Female (N=3871)	
	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent
Through family business	778	10.5	459	13.0	319	8.2
I had been self-employed	192	2.6	121	3.4	71	1.8
I knew someone who got me a job	1936	26.2	1059	30.1	877	22.7
Application/resume	1741	23.6	821	23.3	920	23.8
In person	1875	25.4	885	25.1	990	25.6
Telephone	867	11.7	379	10.8	488	12.6
I applied for a job at the company	610	8.3	340	9.7	270	7.0
I went to Canada Employment and Immigration Office	623	8.4	310	8.8	313	8.1
Filled out company application form	643	8.7	304	8.6	339	8.8
Employer contacted me	1394	18.9	658	18.7	736	19.0
I got it through projects (YMCA, Outreach, Job Generation)	239	3.2	103	2.9	136	3.5
I have never worked	226	3.1	77	2.2	149	3.8

Note: More than one response coded and entered.

In terms of the number of ways students said they used to get their last job, by far the most (48.6%) only listed one, and 11.9% gave two ways (see Table 7.22). A few indicated that they used several ways.

Table 7.22
Number of responses given for ways students obtain jobs
(N=7390)

	Students	
Number of responses	Freq.	Percent
1	3590	48.6
2	878	11.9
3	686	9.3
4	425	5.8
5	201	2.7
6 or more	124	1.7
No response/not worked	1486	20.1

When asked in an open-ended question what they considered to be the best way to get a job, the most common response was through personal contact, a method given by 38.3% of students. Another third said to "make application." There were also about 14% who thought the best way was to know someone important (see Table 7.23). Female responses were higher in all categories except "knowing someone important." The most marked difference was in the "make application" category which was listed by 40.9% of females compared to 29.8% of males.

About half of the students listed one best way to get a job, and about 27% gave two ways (see Table 7.24). Few students gave three or more ways, and 14.6% did not give any response to the question.

Table 7.23
Best way to get job by gender

Best way to get job	All students (N=7390)		Male (N=3519)		Female (N=3871)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Personal contact	2831	38.3	1315	37.4	1516	39.6
Know someone important	1057	14.3	574	16.3	483	12.5
Make application	2635	35.7	1050	29.8	1585	40.9
Agency check	405	5.5	119	3.4	286	7.4
Personal attributes	1049	14.2	478	13.6	571	14.8
Improve qualifications	539	7.3	265	3.4	274	7.1
School personnel	6	0.1	3	0.1	3	0.1
Leave province	7	0.1	2	0.1	5	0.1
Other	4	0.1	2	0.1	2	0.1
Enclose resume/references	1319	17.8	507	14.4	812	21.0
Not answering questions	101	1.4	61	1.7	40	1.0

Note: More than one response coded and recorded.

Applications are a common way of communicating information in the job search process. The information they contain provides an outline for prospective employers. There are obvious limits to the information that students of this age and experience can supply, however there are several categories of items that could be addressed. Many of these emerged when students were asked, in an open-ended way, what they would include on an application (see Table 7.25). Many students listed personal attributes, work-related attributes, work experience and educational background.

Table 7.24
Number of responses given by students on the best ways to get a job (N=7390)

	Students	
Number of responses	Freq.	Percent
1	3508	47.5
2	2044	27.7
3	679	9.2
4	65	0.9
5	12	0.2
No response	1082	14.6

Other items such as references and reason for wanting the job were listed by less than 15% of respondents. It was also evident that there were male female differences in items each group would include in an application. Particularly, many more females (40.7% compared to 33.7% males) listed educational background as an item. The same was also true with respect to personal interests, an item listed by 28.2% of females compared to 18.2% of males.

In terms of the number of application items that were listed, the largest portion of students only listed two or three items. Another 30% gave four or five items, and only 8.8% gave six to ten. At the other end of the scale, there were about 16% of students who gave only one item or simply did not list anything at all (see Table 7.26). Overall, this information suggests that a large proportion of the students need help in identifying a list of items suitable for an application in order to better represent themselves through this medium. Even within the limits of this age group, much more information could be included in an application. However, it is possible that since students considers the best way to obtain employment is through personal contact, the importance of the written application may be diminished in the eyes of Level III school students.

Table 7.25
Items included in an application by gender

Items listed	All students (N=7390)		Male (N=3519)		Female (N=3871)	
	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Personal attributes	4302	58.2	1950	55.4	2352	60.8
Work-related attributes	3812	51.6	1856	52.7	1956	50.5
Work experiences	3534	47.9	1500	42.6	2034	52.5
Educational background	2762	37.4	1186	33.7	1576	40.7
Personal information	1817	24.6	796	22.6	1021	26.4
Personal interests	1731	23.4	641	18.2	1090	28.2
References	1068	14.5	463	13.2	605	15.6
Reason want job	825	11.2	337	9.6	488	12.6
Availability to work	721	9.7	321	9.1	400	10.3
Involvement in clubs	609	8.2	222	6.3	387	10.0
Qualifications/training	577	7.8	243	6.9	334	8.6
Goals/Ambitions	394	5.3	148	4.2	246	6.4
Expected salary	239	3.2	124	3.5	115	3.0
Enclose resume	43	.6	17	0.5	26	0.7
Not sure/Don't know	8	.1	6	0.2	2	0.1
Other	6	.1	0	0.0	6	0.2

Note: More than one response coded and recorded.

Table 7.26
Number of items listed for inclusion in an application
(N=7390)

	Students	
Number of items	Freq.	Percent
0	949	12.8
1	220	3.0
2	1744	23.6
3	1615	21.8
4	1292	17.5
5	920	12.4
6	466	6.3
7	149	2.0
8	28	0.4
9	6	0.1
10	1	--

Future Availability of Jobs in Newfoundland

What do students consider to be the potential of industries in Newfoundland to provide jobs in five years time? Students were asked to indicate if the industries listed in Table 7.27 would provide more, less or the same number of jobs in 1994. The tendency was for students to rate the number of jobs in most of the industries to be at least the same, with construction, petroleum (oil), and health and education in particular being able to provide increased job opportunities. Areas with fewer jobs in the future were considered to be, in declining order, pulp and paper, mining (ore), and fishing.

These perceptions would be based typically on what students know of these industries in the Newfoundland context and their interpretation of

Table 7.27
Student jobs in Newfoundland industries in 1994

	Frequency of jobs						
	(1) More		(2) Same		(3) Fewer		
Newfoundland industries	Freq.	Percent	Freq	Percent	Freq	Percent	Average Rating
Construction	4259	62.7	2305	33.9	231	3.4	1.41
Petroleum (oil)	4388	64.9	1703	25.2	665	9.8	1.45
Health	3745	55.4	2796	41.3	224	3.3	1.48
Education	3516	51.7	2497	36.7	785	11.5	1.60
Retail trade	2415	36.2	3895	58.5	353	5.3	1.69
Government work	2364	34.9	4006	59.1	408	6.0	1.71
Printing and publishing	2071	30.6	4253	62.8	447	6.6	1.76
Ship building/ repair	1830	27.0	3580	52.9	136	20.1	1.93
Agriculture	1240	18.5	4041	60.3	1419	21.2	2.03
Pulp paper	801	11.8	4848	71.5	1128	16.6	2.05
Mining (ore)	1387	20.5	2703	39.9	2683	39.6	2.19
Fishing	431	6.3	2495	36.7	3879	57.0	2.51

Note: Average rating based on more=1, to fewer=3

that information, most of which would have been obtained through the news media. The constant fluctuations in the economy and the affect of these on jobs in various industries means that these perceptions are also likely to be variable, unless there is educational intervention. It is also difficult to say how much attention students gave this information and their estimate of future jobs in the province, since it is evident from earlier discussion in this report that the largest proportion of students

(65.9%) gave personal interest as their reason for career choice, compared to 4.8% who cited work opportunity. Also, construction and oil-related occupations were the career choices of only 390 or 4% of students.

CAREER HOTLINE--INFORMATION SERVICES

History

The provincial career hotline service began in the spring of 1988, but was not officially announced until October of that year. Information in the form of pamphlets was sent to guidance counsellors across the province. There was also a fair amount of publicity at start-up time. It was not until the fall of 1989 that considerably more promotional literature was available and there was active participation in school career days and career fairs.

Level III students in this study then, would have only had access to the hotline for a period of about six months prior to this survey. Since it was a relatively new concept for the province, and limited print information was available on how it could be used and what services it would provide, it was not anticipated that it would have received widespread use by the students. This was somewhat confirmed by the survey results.

Use by Students at Survey Time

About one third of the students had heard of the career hotline, but only 4% of students had actually made use of it (see Table 7.28). However, it would appear that most of those that phoned the hotline had found that it was helpful to them. It was also evident that slightly more use was made of the service by females.

The type of information obtained from the career hotline varied, with the majority of enquiries being about career programs (196 students) followed by information on institutions (72 students). Table 7.29 shows the other

Table 7.28
Knowledge and use of career hotline

Knowledge and use	All students (N=7390)		Male (N=3519)		Female (N=3871)	
	Freq	Percent	Freq	Percent	Freq	Percent
Heard of hotline						
Yes	2495	33.8	1135	32.3	1360	35.1
No	4809	65.1	2335	66.4	2474	63.9
No response	86	1.2	49	1.4	37	7.0
Telephone hotline						
Yes	296	4.0	114	3.2	182	4.7
No	6937	93.7	3324	94.5	3324	93.3
No response	157	2.1	81	2.3	76	2.0
Hotline was helpful	258	3.5	98	2.8	160	4.1

Table 7.29
Information sought from career hotline by gender

Information sought	All students (N=263)		Male (N=102)		Female (N=161)	
	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent
Career programs	196	74.5	62	60.8	134	83.2
Institutions	72	27.4	29	28.4	43	26.7
Unemployment Insurance	1	0.4	1	1.0	0	
Job opportunities	32	12.2	22	21.6	10	6.2
Personal	12	4.6	8	7.8	4	2.5
Financial	30	11.4	11	10.8	19	11.8

Note: Students could give more than one response.

categories of enquiries. It is also apparent that females sought more information on career programs, while a larger proportion of males were interested in job opportunities.

SUMMARY

Students obtained information about institutions in different ways, but predominantly through reading information, and/or from visitors from the institutions. However, students tended to limit their information gathering to one or two places rather than finding out about many, at least as far as was indicated in the questionnaire information. Smaller, and regionalized institutions tended to attract less attention. Much of the information gathering also indicated a traditional gender bias, with more females obtaining information from institutions and training places that are known to offer female dominant occupational programs.

However, information can also be obtained in many other ways than were explored in the survey. For example, through family and friends, or through school personnel. Some institutions and training places may also have long standing reputations which attract clientele to their programs.

It should be noted however, that even though students may read, or otherwise be exposed to information, there is no guarantee that they will use it to critically examine alternatives in selecting post-secondary programs. Rather, they would go with traditionally restricted choices, with some limiting themselves to locally available post-secondary opportunities.

It was evident that large numbers of students were interested in university education, primarily, but not exclusively within the province. This may not be realistic in a number of cases given the necessary entrance requirements to be attained coupled with optimism about Level III final marks.

Many students had sent applications to institutions and training places. For most, it was typically one application to one place. Also, one-third of all applications were to Memorial University. There was also evidence of male/female biases, with each group again tending to favour institutions and places that offer what have been traditionally male or female occupational preparation areas.

Many students were not sure of the cost of continuing their education beyond high school. This may have been something that they had not had to previously consider. However, for many it would soon be a reality they would need to face should they pursue post-secondary education or training. An exception to this might be the armed forces where funding is less of an issue.

In terms of obtaining the money for education, a large proportion of students anticipated reliance on bursaries, student loans and their parents. Some indicated they would work to support their education. However it was evident that the majority of students did not know very much about loans, and even less about bursaries. Many did not even know where they could obtain such information, and in particular almost all students did not know how to go about obtaining money from these sources. It was also interesting that those students who indicated parent and family support to pay for education were less certain of the portion of the total cost they knew their family could pay. This was particularly noticeable when family and parents were listed as secondary sources of funding. Also, many did not know if their family would borrow money for this purpose. Overall, a surprisingly little amount of information was known by students about most of the sources they anticipated would help pay for their further education; and although their knowledge was still limited, more females than males seemed to know more about scholarships, bursaries and loans, and how to obtain them. This may be associated with, as identified earlier, the fact that female reliance on these sources for funding appears to be higher.

An intent to rely on work, particularly by male students, to pay for education in whole or in part was evident, especially full-time summer work. Unfortunately, the question of knowledge and availability of such work was not pursued in the survey. But there was obviously an expectation that work would be available, as it has been for several years, through government supported student programs. A few students also indicated that they were prepared to work full-time for a while to help pay for their education.

Many students had had some kind of work experience while in school. The impact of this was difficult to assess. Certainly, their job experiences would have provided information and knowledge, though perhaps rudimentary, about the world of work.

What students knew about applying for work was interesting. Most students listed methods that involved personal contact of some kind. Use of an application was also in the top three methods given. However, few students listed more than one way to get a job, and they seemed to rely on one known method.

Collectively, the students seemed to know many of the components for a job application. However, the number of items they would use individually was limited, suggesting that help would be needed by many to write a comprehensive application. The relevance of such a process to many students might be questioned at this stage in their careers when many seek only part-time/summer jobs and a large proportion of them have a reliance on personal contact to get jobs.

Most students thought there would be an increase in jobs in provincial industries and services such as construction, petroleum (oil), and health. This may have been related to the impending development of Hibernia (at survey time) in the case of the oil and construction industries. Their anticipation of more jobs in the health care field was much more difficult to understand. It is also interesting, as noted earlier, that construction and oil-related occupations were the career choices of almost none of the students.

As an information service, the career hotline was in its infancy at the time of the survey. Hence, few students had made use of it, but those that had used it had found it helpful.

SECTION EIGHT

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This initial survey of Level III students in Newfoundland and Labrador was conducted in the late spring of 1989. Questionnaires were completed by 7390 (76.9%) of the students at a time when most were nearing the end of their final year in senior high school and approaching a major transition point in their lives. At this stage ~~of their lives~~ they were expected to begin the process of establishing economic independence. Full adult status was not far away. In addition to becoming self-supporting, they would soon be establishing families of their own, and beginning to participate and contribute to their communities. All students must traverse this potentially stressful period. The decisions made at this time chart the direction of their lives for years to come.

THE LEVEL III STUDENT

The data revealed that typical Level III students had been born in Newfoundland, had lived in their local communities for over 10 years, and had attended school in their home areas. Most felt they were doing well in high school and were confident that they would graduate that year with reasonably good marks. Most students believed that they could achieve better marks in school if they really worked at it. The majority were

planning some sort of post-secondary education or training, although a fair number were not sure when this would take place.

The vocational aspirations of Level III students seemed, in general, to follow national labour market trends towards service industries. Very few students planned to participate in the primary industries, in particular, the fisheries. Most of the career aspirations were for occupations that require some post-secondary education, which again follows recent labour market trends. It seems likely, however, that actual post-secondary attainments will result in modification of vocational aspirations. One result of which could be an increased interest in resource industries, particularly if renewal and restructuring of these industries takes place as part of the plans of the province's Economic Recovery Commission.

Even though most Level III students planned to attend post-secondary institutions, many were planning on deferring or were thinking they might have to defer their enrolment. Most students said money was the reason they were deferring school plans, but it was not entirely clear that actual financial resources were unavailable to them. A fair number wanted to become self-supporting and apparently felt that continuing their education would reduce their ability to do this.

Students not Completing Level III

Not all students fit the above description. There were a number who did not anticipate high school graduation that year. Of those, a few thought they would return to school the following year to meet graduation requirements, and some intended to work. A small number appeared to have no plans at all, suggesting that their aspirations were not well developed, or that their plans differred from expected norms which typically lead to continued education and/or work.

Educational Statistics, published by the Department of Education in the spring of 1991, indicate that nearly 1500 students actually returned to school from the 1989 Level III class. From the sample surveyed in this

study over one thousand students should have indicated that they would return, instead of the 230 who actually said they expected to do so at survey time.

It was clear from the data that just under 400 students planned to drop out without completing high school. This verifies the conclusion of the recent YTLM report on early leaving that substantial numbers of people complete all the requirements for graduation apart from the public examinations. These data suggest that the decision to leave school, at least for some, is made even before taking the examinations.

The preliminary conclusion is that for many students the provincial examinations are a graduation requirement that is too difficult for them to meet. In a survey such as this, there are problems of assessing the validity of the data obtained. Normally, the expectation would be that students are overly optimistic about their graduation expectations. Thus, it should be expected that more than 400 students would drop out and, as discovered, more than 230 would return for another year. Conclusions about the provincial examinations should be verified. If correct, there needs to be follow through studies in three areas. First, there should be a review of the validity and usefulness of the examination program for the students affected; second, the quality of the academic preparation of the students leading up to the examinations should be examined; and third, further study of the nature of school leaving at this stage should be carried out.

GENDER ISSUES

The career development of women has been the object of intense interest and speculation in recent years. Many have advocated an increased participation by women in occupational areas traditionally occupied by men. Less attention has been focused on changing the occupational interests of men, primarily because the traditional work of women has paid less, and has had lower status than "men's work." Education has

changed considerably in the past few years. The authors recall the time when some prevocational courses in Newfoundland were designed "for the girls." This has become a thing of the past. It is fair to say that society, itself, is in transition regarding its attitudes toward gender differences. Nowhere is this so evident as in the sample surveyed for this study. The analysis of gender issues given in this report is preliminary. There are many questions deserving of more detailed examination, so the following discussion should be regarded as an introduction to these complex questions.

The women in the sample showed the expected stereotypes concerning the question of career choice. More females than males indicated aspirations in the areas of medicine and health, social services,and teaching, while fewer expressed interest in nautical science, engineering, product fabricating, and construction. Even in the areas for which overall interest was quite low, like work in the primary resource industries, fewer women than men showed interest; yet, these are all areas where women are now making inroads.

There were clear signs, however, that women were changing their attitudes with respect to the kinds of work that they might do. The total number listing occupations in the sales area was very low. It was no larger than the number of men who thought they might work in the area, even though this has been one traditional area of employment for women. Despite the low numbers, some women did express interest in male bastions of employment. This was more true in science, engineering, administration and management than in construction, transportation, and primary resources. Recent research has indicated that women's interests in the latter occupational areas, tends to develop at a later age than that of the present sample, so the lower interest of females of this age in these categories would be expected (Aylward, 1991).

In general, the women perceived, probably accurately, that their academic performance in high school was better than that of their male classmates. However, they were planning to enter occupations that did

not require as much education and training as those the men were planning to enter. Why did not the higher achievement of the women in the study translate into aspirations for occupations with higher academic requirements? The answers to this question are not at all clear, but the survey did obtain some information that suggested three; any one, or all of which could bear on the question in any given case. These are explanations that appear frequently in the literature. They are the self-concepts, marriage plans, and family influences of the young men and young women.

Self-concept of Women and Career Aspirations

The self-concept is a central aspect of the study of transition: both aspiration and choice can be explained as a function of the view of self and its interaction with the environment. One of the most interesting observations to emerge thus far from this study is the apparent discontinuity between the academic and vocational self-concepts of the women who were surveyed.

The problem can be better understood by considering several related findings. First, relatively more women than men chose careers with specific training levels of one to two years, and relatively fewer chose careers with more than two years training required, especially in the 4 to 10 year range. One the other hand, more females than males planned to attend a post-secondary institution at some time, and more were considering attending university. This suggests a tendency for women to plan to overeducate, given their occupational aspirations. It is worth noting that the additional education, if attained, could result in changes in levels of aspiration sometime in the future. Many would also argue that the additional education is a worthy end in itself.

Perception of abilities. One explanation for these findings may lie in the tendency of the women to understate their academic capacity. In general, women saw themselves performing closer to their ability than did the men.

They tended to report less capacity for improving their academic performance, even though they perceived themselves to be performing better than their male classmates. Women were also more likely than men to consider math and science a problem. Among those not planning to continue their education, a few more women than men suggested that their academic qualifications were inadequate. It is possible, therefore, that women have more doubts about their ability to compete with men academically in the future, or to sustain their level of academic attainment in more competitive environments. There were other gender differences that could also bear on the question. Women were more likely than men to prefer taking courses or learning from books as opposed to experiential learning on the job. They were also more concerned about talking to strangers and adults. They did not have as high a regard for their ability to learn some of the more academically demanding jobs as did the men. In general it was quite clear that they thought that it would be more difficult for them to learn to do traditionally male work. It is possible, therefore, that they have greater doubts about their capacity to make the school to work transition, perhaps with good reason, considering the barriers that women must cross in some work environments.

Marriage and educational planning. More women than men reported plans to marry. While the gender differences in these plans cannot be regarded as an indication of the likely outcome, they do suggest a relative difference in the view of gender roles at this age. More men said that they would not marry. More women said that they would marry within six years. Thus, at the time of the survey, and considering traditional roles of the women, the possibility of marriage was less likely to be a factor in career decision making for the men than for the women. This makes them more free to think not only about the educational requirements of their planned occupation, but also about the requirements of job entry, and establishing their careers. The view taken of the homemaking role is therefore of great interest. Even though the majority of both sexes planned marriage, virtually no one anticipated being only a homemaker. While more women than men anticipated mixing career and homemaking, half said that they would pursue a career only. The view

being taken by young women about their role in the home may be changing, but clearly it is still a factor for many when planning their future. More information is needed about the view of the homemaking role. Is a career viewed within the context of homemaking, or is it the other way around, homemaking within the context of a career? Establishing programming within the schools to confront this issue will involve a minefield of important social issues. The place of education and career in the lives of women is an evolving social question involving the entire community. Schools can only assist women in confronting questions, and the success of the programming should not be judged entirely by the decisions women make.

Personal Satisfaction. There was some evidence that the perception of the relationship of work to education, and the role that education could play in life differed between the sexes. Men seemed to have a much more instrumental view of work, and so they tended to see the payoff of education more in terms of its ability to lead to more secure and highly paid employment than did the women, although, it would be wrong to say that this was not also a major concern of the women in the sample. Women tended to say that the social aspects of work were most important to them, while men emphasized the security aspects of work. In considering their plans for the upcoming year, fewer women than men felt a need to begin to support themselves. When describing their work experiences during school, men were more likely than women to say that they worked mainly for the money, while the women were somewhat more likely to say that they worked for the experience, or to pay for their education. Again, the differences in these values were not great. Women were more likely than men to have reported that they enjoyed their work experience. More of them stated that having a job made them feel useful, but more women than men also felt that they were entitled to the kinds of work for which they had been prepared by their education, especially if they had worked hard during their training. They were somewhat less inclined than men to be accepting of an unemployed status. A few more males than females expected to do seasonal work and collect UI. Those women who reported phoning the career hot line wanted to know about

educational programs more so than did the men. Men wanted to know about jobs. Men, therefore, were somewhat more inclined to view education in terms of financial payoff, while women had a tendency to identify somewhat more with the intrinsic values of education, and thus with the more intrinsic values associated with work. This is a third explanation for the inclination of women to aspire to occupations requiring less education and training than they were prepared to undertake. It may be that women are less persuaded by the conventional argument that higher levels of education can be linked to greater earning power, and more persuaded by the potential of education to provide a route to actualization. It should be emphasized, though, that both genders have bought into the conventional wisdom that education has a financial payoff, and the bigger the educational investment, the bigger the payoff. There has been some recent evidence developed to suggest that education may not always yield this kind of payoff. It would seem that the perception of an accessible labour market will be necessary to sustain this form of motivation.

A useful strategy with young women could be to encourage further education, especially of a general nature, in order to give aspirations a chance to mature. A finding of Aylward's study (1991) was that the nontraditional interests of girls in childhood become more traditional during adolescence, but return with more maturing. The nontraditional aspiration is sustained by the family, and especially, the father.

SCHOOL ROLE IN THE TRANSITION PROCESS (ADVISEMENT ISSUES)

Quite often, the role of school in career decision making is raised when problems of youth transition are being discussed. Studies almost always show that students do not view the school as helpful when they are making basic decisions such as which career to pursue, or whether to continue in education. This study confirmed that basic finding. Most students

reported discussing their career planning with someone, but school personnel were not mentioned often in the list of consultants.

Parents were the most often consulted, and were considered the most important advisors by the people in the study. Parents played a significant role with those who had thought about early leaving, and were considered by those students to have been the most helpful in making the decision to stay in school. They were also quite heavily involved in career decision making. Mothers were consulted most frequently by both the men and women in the study, although fathers were regarded almost as highly.

The fact that school is not reported by the students to be as important as the parents in career decision making should not be viewed as an indictment of school. Level III students are at a point in their lives when career decisions are required, and the traditional focus of these decisions has always been the family. The important information is that most students do involve their family and accord them high priority in decision making. This is confirmed by the level of accord the students reported their families have with their career decisions.

It is possible that the importance of peers in the process has been overemphasized in the recent literature. In this study, the students revealed that while their friends were consulted more frequently than their counsellors, teachers and principals, their school counsellors were seen to be at least as helpful as their friends. Simple propinquity explains the higher reliance on friends. Neither group, however, were consulted as frequently, or were seen to be as helpful as were parents.

The students were asked why they had decided upon a particular career path, and from whom they sought help in making the decision. From the responses, it may be concluded that the broad, global decisions take place outside of school. The fact that most people say they made their choices based on interest, rather than the influence of school, again does not lead to the conclusion that the school has failed to play a role in the decision process. It is likely that school plays a less direct role in helping to

develop interests of the students through instruction and other school programs. Students, themselves, indicated that they would rely on school to provide specific information about loans, scholarships and bursaries.

Unless the schools wish to take over control of career decision making, and focus the process within the system, the role of school has to be construed as one of support of the process now in place. There are some ways that schools could improve their performance in doing this. First, if they wish to affect significant change in the nature of career decision making, they need to find ways to influence the family. Second, the importance of student aspirations must be recognized. Third, schools need to find ways to identify more precisely the information requirements of families, and deliver the type and level of information needed when it is needed. As an example, consider the role of finances in career and education decisions. Finances influence the process in two ways. There is the issue of how to pay for a program or course that has been selected. This requires fairly detailed information that is targeted specifically at a selected program of study. Before this, however, is the role played by the perception of cost, and how that may drive the development of aspiration to continue education at all. Underlying these aspects of decision making are attitudes about the appropriateness of borrowing money for education and other values held by the family. These may limit the range of young people's aspirations, and it is worth noting that these values influence the development of perceptions from birth. Specific information about the cost of education is less likely to be an important consideration at this level, although the cost of education is very possibly a determining aspect in developing the aspiration.

The sample contained a fairly large group of people who were undecided about their immediate plans, or who had decided not to continue immediately with their education. Some of these people perceived a need to be self-supporting, or could not afford education, or reported indecision about the best program to take. Their needs are very different from the people who had decided to continue education, intended to rely heavily on loans, scholarships and bursaries, but did not know how

much to expect from these sources, or how to access them. The role of the school should be very different in assisting these two groups. With the first group, the family would be an important consideration in clarifying their direction, while with the second, intervention could be focused much more in the school to provide the needed information.

A course such as Career Education 3101, coming as it does late in the school experience and focused within the school, will be most useful for providing specific information to students. The evidence is that this course will be about as successful as any other courses in an academic area. Success in the course will be linked to the students own motivation and ability. The course will probably be less likely to actually establish sustainable aspirations.

THE ROLE OF FAMILY

Families play different roles in the career planning of men and women. There is, of course, considerable literature suggesting that family and community provide the models which are instrumental in developing gender roles and which lead to interests which are important in setting basic career direction. Family values, in particular those concerning money, may bear considerably on the transition process in a number of important ways. First, there is the question about the degree to which the value of education within the family becomes a financial question. Educational aspirations, in some cases, can be expected to be a function of the perception of available financial support for education. This would apply equally to men and women, although it may be that the problem of financing impacts differently for men than for women. Second, the development of specific information about financing is important for actually pursuing higher education. The level of interaction that the Level III students perceive to have taken place between them and their parents is a likely indicator of the impact the family has on their perceptions and the decisions that have been taken.

Almost all students reported some discussion of their career plans with their families. There was a greater tendency to discuss plans with their mothers than with their fathers, and this was especially true for the women. This is an important point, as the interest and involvement of fathers has been associated with nontraditional career choices of women. While the perceived support of both parents for the continuation of education was high, women tended to feel this support a bit more from their mothers than from their fathers. Overall, the students perceived a high level of support for their post-secondary plans, although the support was marginally higher when the plans included education.

It may be assumed, therefore, that parents approve the plans of the young women to follow gender stereotyped career directions and to aspire to lower levels of education. We do not know the actual role played by parents. Two different roles are possible. In the first, parents could support career decisions made independently of their direct influence. Their support has not been contingent on the decisions their sons and daughters have made. If they do exercise an influence, it is perhaps in the values and attitudes that they have expressed, over the years. The second role could be one of contingent support for a plan meeting parental approval. This would be based on a consideration of the specifics of the situation, such as the actual cost of education, place of residence, and so forth.

There is some indirect evidence for the first hypothesis, that is, that parents will support their children as they chart their own course, particularly if the course includes more education. The students surveyed displayed very little specific knowledge about financing education, although they had general levels of expectations about how they would find the money for their schooling. This implies that the perceptions about family commitments are not based on specific discussion of ways and means. It was also evident that most students were not expecting their families to provide a lot of financial support.

It is of some interest that women felt more support for continued education from their mothers and fathers than did men. This perception of the students had several correlates. Fewer women than men felt a need to become self-supporting. A few more women than men felt that their family would borrow for their education. In general, women were more confident of financial support from their families than were the men, and they planned to rely more heavily on them. More women than men thought they knew what financial contribution their families would make, and were somewhat more confident than males that their families would make some contribution. What makes this most interesting is the conventional wisdom that in a traditional culture it is more important to educate the men than to educate the women. In this case more women than men were planning post-secondary education, especially at the university level. So, if the perceptions of the students are accurate, the conventional wisdom is not always true in Newfoundland.

FINANCING EDUCATION

Sources of Support

In general, Level III students planned to rely on sources outside the family to finance their post-secondary education. They intended to rely most heavily on the student loan program. More women than men planned to rely on student loans to finance education, while more men planned to rely on summer work. Women would rely on parents somewhat as a secondary source of funding while men would rely on work to a greater extent to supplement the loans.

The degree of financial support that students thought was available from their families was related to their plans for the year after graduation. In general, students who believed that their parents were prepared to shoulder most or all of the financial burden of their education were more likely to be planning to continue their education. The level of support believed available from parents was not related to definite intentions to seek employment; however, these intentions did appear to be stronger

when the student did not know how much support to expect. People who thought they might have to work rather than return to school tended to perceive that lower levels of support would be available from their parents, again moderated somewhat by not knowing.

The level of dependence on parental support was related to student perception of the level of financial help they could expect. Greater reliance was placed on loans as the primary means of financing education as the perception of parents' ability to provide support was lower. About 14% planned to depend primarily on work. Again, this was inversely related to the perception of the level of support from parents. The use of means tests in the student loans program would generally dictate this result, so the accuracy of the student perceptions of parental intent, and perceptions of the availability of work, are important issues.

Some students who felt that they could rely on their parents for substantial support nonetheless expected to rely on other sources of financing. Even in cases where they thought their parents would pay for most or all of their education, some students said that they intended to rely primarily on loans, and to a lessor extent, on work. The reason for this is not clear, but the plan would be problematic if the standard means test indicated that families could afford the education. This dependence on loans could influence many decisions, especially when taken in an economic context that suggests education might be a poor investment. While few people were of the opinion that one should never borrow to finance an education, large numbers, especially men, tied borrowing to economic return. Linked to other attitudes, such as the view of the local economy, and the possibility that some post-secondary programs may not provide a competitive edge in the job market, the need to borrow money could modify intentions to return to school. Family means to pay may not be the crucial issue, either, although it is undoubtably an important factor. The view that the family takes of its ability to pay may be quite different from the view of the agencies that set up the means tests. We have no information about this, but suspect that there is great variation on this question. This would be related to attitudes within families about the

relative responsibilities of the family and government to provide the ways and means of post-secondary education. Another factor is the drive for independence of some of the young people surveyed, perhaps explaining the intent to rely on loans even when the family is perceived to be willing to pay.

Planning Educational Financing

Cost is at the heart of decisions to pursue post-secondary education or training in a number of respects. In the preceding section, the sources of financing that Level III students planned to use were examined. Perhaps as important as the availability of funding is knowing how to access financial resources, and having attitudes that dispose one towards the use of money for education. In an earlier section there was some discussion of how an understanding of the role of the family in financial planning for post-secondary education may give some insight into the family role in other areas of career planning.

It was evident that the students who were surveyed did not have a high level of knowledge about sources of educational financing. Although the highest proportion of those planning to go on intended to rely on loans and bursaries, they knew remarkably little about educational loans, how much they could expect to borrow, criteria for qualifying, and procedures for applying. Women tended to say that they knew somewhat more about getting scholarships, bursaries and loans, however the evidence was that they knew very little about this, and only slightly more than men. A few more women than men knew of somewhere to go to find out the information.

A very large proportion of the students either did not know, or did not say how much support they thought that they could expect from their parents. Persons not knowing about this were somewhat more likely to either be hoping or definitely planning to continue their education than were persons who perceived no support at all from their parents. However, they were much less likely to be definitely planning to continue

than were persons who anticipated even one-fourth support from their families. They tended also to be planning somewhat greater reliance on parental support and less on loans, despite their lack of knowledge of their parents' willingness to provide the support. This is an important group because it is such a large part of the total, about 43.1%. Identifying and working with this group could have more impact than working with any of the others.

In general, students who reported "a lot" of discussion with their fathers and mothers about their careers perceived that a greater level of financial support would be made available by their parents than was perceived by those who did not engage in this type of discussion. In particular, if they had engaged in discussion, more people believed that their parents would make a contribution. The number of people who said they did not know what their parents would contribute was lower. People who reported a lot of discussion with a counsellor were more likely to feel that their parents would provide financial support for their education. However, there was no important relationship between counsellor contact and the level of parental support that was perceived. It may be that students who have a lot of contact with counsellors also tend to have more contact with their parents. Alternatively, the counsellor contact could have initiated the parent contact.

The unanswered question concerns the function of the parental discussion. As earlier observed, it could serve simply to confirm student decisions already made on the basis of long-term involvement with parents and exposure to their attitudes and values, together with assumptions about family income that had also developed as a result of that intimacy. Alternatively, discussion with parents could settle matters of detail, and form the basis for the perceptions of parental intentions regarding educational financing. The fact that students who report less discussion with parents also seem less decided about direction, and less sure of ways and means, seems to suggest that programming that helped students and their parents to confront these important decisions together would be

useful in establishing student direction, as well as helping them to plan the ways and means.

VIEW OF THE FUTURE

Most of the students expected to be working in some career in five to ten years time. They were more optimistic than current statistics which currently show a high rate of unemployment for people who are age twenty to twenty-five. Within Newfoundland and Labrador, they foresaw growth in education, construction and health, but a decline in the primary resources industries. In order to fully appreciate the significance of this, it should be remembered that this survey was conducted before the last two disastrous years in the fisheries. Government economic policy which is directed towards finding ways of exploiting the primary industries has not been translated into career plans according to the young people who were surveyed.

Most of the Level III students indicated that they were prepared to leave the province, if necessary, to pursue their careers. The province's economic development strategy assumes that a trained workforce can be put in place within the province in order to support development. The young people of the province have a different vision of their future than does the provincial government, and this vision, by and large, is supported by their parents. It includes education for the majority, and employment in the careers and occupations for which they have trained. The indications are, however, that the jobs will have to be in place if this vision is to be sustained. Those who pursue their education will also pursue the rewards they expect, elsewhere if necessary, leaving a residual of relatively unskilled new entrants into the province's workforce.

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